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ABSTRACT

The main focus of this secondary-level psychology course is that of enhancing student interest in and understanding of psychological concepts, principles, and hypotheses through exploration of their relationship to current and arresting topics and problems, including problems of individual development and interpersonal relations. The curriculum guide begins with a prerequisite introductory unit. Specific units following the introduction include (1) perception, (2) motivation, (3) learning, (4) thinking, (5) developmental aspects, (6) personality, and (7) social influences. Within each of the major unit topics are several subtopics. The course revolves around a module system of instruction covering one or several lessons. Each module contains the central principle, key terms, instructional objectives, activities, normal-abnormal continuum, evaluation exercises, and references. A bibliography concludes the guide which lists the books referred to in the lessons and activities. (Author/JR)

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High School Psychology Elective

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BULLETIN NO. 272

HIGH SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY ELECTIVE

Bulletin No. 272

Montgomery County Public Schools
Rockville, Maryland
Homer O. Elseroad
Superintendent of Schools

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FOREWORD

With the number of electives offered in high schools rapidly increasing, the development of a course of study for yet another elective presents many problems, viz., problems of scope, continuity and integration, questions about the purpose of the course, of electives in curriculum, and of education itself. When that elective is the discipline of psychology, the problems are compounded by the nature of the field itself, particularly its identification with self-study in ways that are more direct or more profound than are likely to occur in other fields of study. Workshop members have tried to keep these problems in mind while struggling with creating a course framework solid enough to give the teacher support yet flexible enough to permit varying course purposes and instructional approaches.

Any course of study should invite amplification, particularly with regard to its suggested activities and evaluation exercises, and continuing revision. In addition, this course of study points to possibilities for the development of additional modules along the lines indicated by the framework for the course. These possibilities include both modules indicated by the framework but not yet developed and alternate modules for those already developed within the framework.

This course of study was developed, mainly during the summers of 1971, 1972, and 1973, by:

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INTRODUCTION

PURPOSES AND LIMITATIONS OF THE PSYCHOLOGY ELECTIVE

Among statements justifying the introduction of a course in psychology at the high school level, three general purposes stand out:

1. To teach important ideas and principles of psychology, often through textbook coverage, at the same time familiarizing the student with the academic and vocational choices in and allied with the field of psychology

2. To teach about the investigative approach to behavior: observation, formulation of hypotheses, setting up experimental situations, gathering and analyzing data

3. To teach psychological information and applications in a self-improvement context, most often applications intended to enhance interpersonal relations in the areas of peer relations, dating, marriage, career choice, parenthood

These general purposes are not mutually exclusive, but the time limitation of a semester course makes it impossible to pursue all three in any depth. The teacher should consider which purpose or combination of these purposes best lends itself to the needs and expectations of the students taking the course and to his own training and interest in psychology.

The first purpose listed includes the many courses aimed at acquainting the student with the field of psychology as a discipline and/or as a possible profession for the student. Of the three, it is probably the one tied most often to an academic instructional approach. Although this need not be the approach chosen, the implied purpose of "covering" the field may help tie it to this approach. A teacher who emphasizes this purpose in this course should consider the need for selectivity with regard to the many fields and professions within psychology (clinical, experimental, educational, industrial, etc.) and with regard to the traditional areas of study within psychology (learning, motivation, personality, perception, etc.).

The second purpose has its own difficulties. It is more limited in its appeal than the others (the student who chooses a course in psychology may not anticipate this emphasis at all). It requires some work with statistics; and it immediately raises the issue of the proper context for an emphasis on method: should it be within psychology, within the behavioral sciences, within science as a whole, or integrated even more broadly within the curriculum?

The issues in emphasizing the third purpose may not be more complex than those in the others, but they are more salient and sensitive because this purpose is most likely to encompass current efforts to emphasize the affective domain in instruction, to "personalize" the course, to make it relevant. These efforts range from traditional means of making the course interesting (individual projects, group discussion, applications to current events) to the elicitation of strong emotional responses calculated to substantially alter behavior patterns. Among the means for achieving the latter are group interactions of the kind referred to in a memorandum from Dr. Tarallo, associate superintendent for administration (title at time of memo was assistant superintendent) to all principals, dated February 16, 1971, and herein quoted in full:

> MEMORANDUM
>
> To: All Principals
>
> From: Joseph J. Tarallo, Assistant Superintendent for Administration
>
> Subject: Sensitivity Training and Other Group Psychotherapy Techniques
>
> It is acknowledged that a variety of professional viewpoints exist concerning sensitivity training activities and their usefulness in an educational setting. In the absence of consensus of professional and/or substantial research evidence to support their use in a public school setting, it has been decided that sensitivity training will be prohibited in any MCPS setting for staff members of students unless approved in writing by this office for unusual and imperative reasons.
>
> It is to be recognized that group process activities represent a valid and worthwhile educational tool which is to be encouraged in the school setting. Restrictions are placed, however, on the use of groups commonly referred to as "Sensitivity or T-Groups and Encounter Groups" which have as their goals psychotherapeutic or quasi-psychotherapeutic outcomes involving groups of students. Individual students interested in the types of experiences offered through sensitivity training should be encouraged to secure them from legitimate professional sources in the community. All school administrators are hereby directed to refrain from authorizing the use of these activities in their schools.

The prohibition in this memorandum should be kept in mind by all teachers of psychology, particularly in attempts to "personalize" the learnings of psychology. The affective domain as described by Krathwohl[1] may furnish additional guidance here inasmuch as it is based in part on evaluation items used by teachers and is thus representative of more traditional or "recognized educational...experiences." The need for great caution in this area should be clear when the teacher considers that the utilization of the affective realm in education, while much talked about, raises ethical and political issues which have not been fully clarified, let alone resolved, and which are rightfully the focus of much concern and controversy in the community. The course of study for psychology offers guidance here through its listed objectives and activities.

There is also need for caution with regard to another kind of learning activity associated with psychology courses. Some of the best learning activities, those which most vividly illustrate ideas in psychology, involve temporarily creating an assumption or attitude in the student which is contrary to fact. In other words, there is a temporary deception involved on the part of the teacher for the sake of increasing student learning. Such deceptions occurring in this course of study vary from the very mild ones used to illustrate set (e.g., Activities D and

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[1] David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, Bertram B. Masia. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook II: Affective Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1965).

E of Module I-C) to the somewhat more involved ones used to illustrate the strength of group influence on individual judgments (e.g., Activity E of Module I-B) or to illustrate how an individual's group affiliation may influence his standards and aspirations (e.g., Activity D of Module VII-B). Activities of this kind in the course of study have been carefully selected from among those commonly used in psychology course work to include only those least likely to have any harmful impact on students. Further, they are used only to illustrate points which otherwise are unlikely to be adequately understood. The psychology teacher is cautioned to be similarly conservative in the choice of such activities and to restrict their use to the same purpose.

Beyond these criteria of selection, the psychology teacher has two other responsibilities with regard to learning activities which involve some degree of deception. The teacher should orient the class to the use of these activities early in the course. He should not only point out the restricted way in which they will be used but that their use is contingent upon the consent and cooperation of the students. Just as a game depends upon common agreement on its rules by the players, so such activities depend upon a willing entering into the "game" by the students. Should students decide not to become involved or to give the game away by shouting out the answer, giving impermissible hints, etc., they obviously could subvert the learning activity. The teacher should point this out to the students, making clear that engaging upon such learning activities is a matter of their continuing choice.

The first of these responsibilities, then, requires the teacher to obtain the students' informed consent to this kind of activity generally. The second requires the teacher to observe closely individual student reactions to these activities, to solicit student reaction following each such activity, and thus to continually gauge the need to adjust or omit activities which might cause embarrassment or discomfort. Wherever the activity does not involve the class as a whole, volunteers should be selected by the teacher.

POINT OF VIEW UNDERLYING THE COURSE OF STUDY

The point of view underlying the course of study is that of enhancing student interest in and understanding of psychological concepts, principles, and hypotheses through exploration of their relationship to current and arresting topics and problems, including problems of individual development and interpersonal relations.

The interaction between the discipline and the topic or problem, in this view, is to be treated as mutual, the psychological learning influencing one's perception of the behavior to which it is applied, and consideration of the behavior in turn reflecting upon the adequacy of the psychological concept or principle.

Content from the discipline of psychology and its treatment, then, is what is distinctive about this course. Courses with such titles as Human Relations, Contemporary Cummunication, or Self-Development, might reflect some of the same psychological content, but their purposes and emphasis would, or should, be sufficiently distinct to warrant these titles. By the same token, a course entitled Psychology should reflect a substantial emphasis on the discipline of psychology, not necessarily in the academic quality of its approach or in its attempt at broad coverage of the field, but in the directness and authenticity with which it treats psychological content.

The difficulties and advantages of building a course in this way should be noted. The primary advantage lies in immediately gaining and maintaining student interest, since interest in application and current topics is much more widespread than it is in the discipline for its own sake. At the same time, application lends itself to consideration of a topic in varying degrees of scope and depth, thus more readily suggesting a range of student activities suitable to different ability levels. These two advantages suggest a third, viz., more easily eliciting student initiative in study via discussion, individual or group projects, generating and substantiating hypotheses, etc.

A danger confronting the teacher who applies and thus popularizes his discipline lies in the pull toward too easy use of social science jargon and of loose formulations which do little justice to the rigor of the discipline. Student discussion, when allowed to continue in this vein, may have its moments of fun but bores the students before too long because they come to perceive it as a "bull session" and profitless. On the other hand, there is the difficulty of achieving that mastery of a subject required to apply its principles with insight. Application looks easy and certainly is appealing but calls for much greater knowledge and harder work on the part of the teacher than does straight, didactic exposition.

To correctly state a principle of perception, for example, and to carefully analyze its terms and define each one, requires only close attention to that portion of the textbook's chapter on perception which deals with the principle. Like the academic scholar, the teacher may be safe, even unassailable, within his definitions and the principle logically built upon them. But when that principle of perception is applied to a problem in intra- or interpersonal relations, for example, the validity of courtroom testimony or conflict between the generations, it no longer stands alone. It needs to be related to other principles in perception and in other areas of psychology. Perception may be a separate chapter in a textbook but no man is moved by perception alone. Perception, motivation, learning, thinking, etc., are bound together in any psychological treatment of a problem; and it takes a comprehensive mastery of the field (and of one's instructional intention) to know which principles to highlight and what their relationships may be.

Few teachers of psychology may feel that they possess this degree of mastery of the subject. The difficulty has been stated forcefully here - but hopefully not exaggerated - not to discourage but to point out some of its implications. The primary implication is that the teacher may have to seriously consider the old saw about the teacher's position being that of a superior learner in relation to his students. From this stance follows a good many other implications: the need to rely on the initiative of the student in pursuing aspects of the problem which interest him, assigning students to the investigation of different principles or hypotheses which may bear on the problem, and bringing these different aspects to focus on the problem in classroom discussion.

When this last difficulty is put in terms of the teaching of controversial issues, its possibilities and even advantages become clearer. Use of controversial issues is certainly being recommended in this course of study, for these will arise in discussion of the recommended current topics and problems. These are social issues which exist independent of and outside of the discipline of psychology. But what is being stressed here is the possibility of viewing the application of psychological principles to these problem areas as itself involving legitimate classroom controversy. The teacher should be able to bring his knowledge of the field to bear on the question of the validity of the psychological principle as stated, and even as applied; but the question of the adequacy of the principle in shedding light on the problem is always debatable. The best teaching will make this clear, will use the discussion to bring out varying views, and will increase understanding of both the psychological content and the topic to which it is being applied.

The course of study thus provides support to the teacher who chooses any one of the course purposes described at the beginning of this section, or any combination of them. If they are all valid purposes, and the assumption here is that they are, the course of study should be flexible enough to support them all. Its point of view, then, assumes a commitment to teaching and learning based on a continual interaction between psychological content and its application to basic and absorbing issues but is substantially neutral with regard to the shaping of that interaction toward one or another of the purposes listed. Similarly, the intent is that the course of study support a variety of instructional approaches (lecture, group discussion, inductive strategies, role playing, etc.). This is largely a matter of the richness and variety of the suggested classroom activities and procedures included in the course of study, and it is clear that in this regard the present course of study will require frequent revision if the activities and references are to remain current and interesting to students.

STRUCTURE OF THE COURSE OF STUDY

A course of study, ideally, is related to the rest of curriculum via a series of generalizations at different levels which make clear the scope, sequence, and integration of the course. The set of generalizations of "substantive elements" which encompasses the content of social studies at the "institutional level" is included in the MCPS Bulletin No. 215, entitled Curriculum Design, Institutional Level, on pages 311-312. A set of "Substantive Generalizations for Psychology" has been derived from these and is listed here. They may furnish some guidance as to the scope and integration of the course content. At the same time, since they are newly derived and open to revision, they offer the teacher an opportunity to consider their adequacy.

1. Individual functioning may be described as developed patterns derived from interrelated biological and cultural factors.

2. The conflict between the forces for change and those for stability is present in every individual but occurs with varying intensity at different times and within altered contexts.

3. The individual's basic needs are reflected in his aspirations and his utilization of resources.

4. The antecedents and consequences of specific behaviors are complex and interwoven.

5. The behaviors of the individual are not capricious; the patterns which they follow are subject to prediction.

6. The increasing interdependence of the society and the individual makes increasing demands upon his development and his contributions.

The overall objective for the course is that the student understand important psychological concepts, principles, and hypotheses through applying them to current and arresting topics and problems. The overall objective may be expressed for each unit in terms of the concepts dealt with in that particular unit of the course or in terms of those concepts developed in a particular module. The following list is of objectives at the unit level. Their order follows that of the presentation of units in this document. However, the number of units to be taken up in a particular classroom, along with their sequence and organization, remain instructional decisions of the teacher.

Prerequisite Unit (Introductory):

1. Through recognition of an adequate definition of psychology, the student will be able to indicate his understanding of the field in terms of its scope and its emphasis on the understanding and control of behavior.

2. The student will be able to briefly describe one of the historical developments in psychology, e.g., the movement from emphasis on philosophy to emphasis on behavioral science, the emergence of and period of popularity of any one of the schools of psychology, the broadening of the scope of psychology, etc.

3. The student will be able to name two major figures in the history of psychology and make a brief statement about the contribution of each.

4. The student will be able to give four different examples of the kinds of work psychologists do.

5. The student will be able to state and illustrate generally the major steps in psychological investigation.

Unit I (Perception): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

Attention
Attitude
Illusion
Internal Stimuli
Perception
Closure
Cue
Perceptual Set
Prejudice
Discrimination
Hallucination
Premature Closure
Threshold

Unit II (Motivation): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

- Attitude
- Cognitive Dissonance
- Commitment
- Control
- Drive
- Incentive
- Motive
- Motivation
- Need
- Territorial Imperative
- Unconscious Motive
- Value

Unit III (Learning): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

- Aptitude
- Biofeedback
- Conditioning, Classical
- Conditioning, Operant
- Extrinsic and Intrinsic Rewards
- Feedback
- Generalization
- Identification
- Identity
- Learning
- Massed and Distributed Practice
- Modeling
- Motive
- Phobia
- Programmed Instruction
- Reinforcement, Primary and Secondary
- Self-Concept
- Shaping
- Transfer
- Trait
- Value
- Whole and Part Learning

Unit IV (Thinking): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

- Adaptability (Adaptive Behavior)
- Cognition
- Cognitive Set
- Cognitive Style
- Convergent Thinking
- Creative Problem-Solving
- Divergent Thinking
- Generalization
- Identity Formation
- Intelligence
- Motivation
- Stereotype
- Tolerance for Ambiguity

Unit V (Developmental Aspects): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

- Aggregate
- Aggression
- Conflict
- Control
- Differentiation
- Drive
- Egocentric
- Empathy
- Fixation
- Identification
- Identity
- Instinct
- Model
- Modeling
- Need
- Patterned Behavior
- Predisposition
- Regression
- Reinforcement
- Role
- Role Diffusion
- Self-Concept
- Stages of Development

Unit VI (Personality): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

Defense Mechanism
Displacement
External Control
Identity
Internal Control
Personality
Projection
Repression
Self; Self-concept
Scapegoating
Unconscious

Unit VII (Social Influences): The student will be able, through defining in his own words, giving examples, analyzing, etc., to indicate understanding of the following concepts in relation to the topics dealt with in the unit:

Aggregate
Conflict
Crowd
Delay of Gratification
Expectation
Group
In-group
Internalization
Mob
Out-group
Perception
Reference Group
Role
Self-fulfilling Prophecy
Social Reality

The Module

Module, as used in this course of study, refers to a small segment of instruction covering one or several lessons. Based on one or more psychological principles the module represents a somewhat arbitrary separation which serves two purposes. It aids the teacher in focusing on one part of what is always an integral and complex whole (psychologically, the individual; from the standpoint of application, the problem). At the same time, it is hoped that separately distinguishing the module in this way will make it more easily seen as a link with many possible connections to other links or modules.

The Grid

The modules are developed, in keeping with the earlier described point of view of the course of study, by relating each of several areas within psychology to each of several topics chosen for their importance in their own right and their probable interest to students. These areas of psychology are:

1. Perception
2. Motivation and Emotion
3. Learning
4. Thinking
5. Developmental Aspects
6. Personality
7. Social Influences

Normal - Abnormal Continuum
Method and Research

The last two areas are not assigned numbers because they are thought to be better represented as aspects of every other module rather than as separate areas serving to generate additional modules in their own right.

Although the area of psychology which is devoted to the exploration of the physiological correlates of behavior, neuropsychology, is increasingly gaining the attention of psychologists of all specialities, there has been no attempt to draw from that body of knowledge in this introductory course of study.

The topics chosen, along with some possible subtopics under each, are:

A. Conflict, Violence, and Conflict Resolution

War
Crime
Sports
Conflict in Everyday Life
Conflict and Conflict Resolution in the Classroom; in the School

B. Identity and Identity-Crisis

The Hippie Movement
Delinquency
Family Relations
Conformity
Vocational Choice
Sex Role

C. Prejudice

Racism, Ethnic and Religious Prejudices
Prejudice in the Classroom and School
Categorizing and Stereotyping
Stereotyping in Thinking in and About This Course

D. Human Control Over Human Behavior

1. Over Self

Concentration and Study Habits
Self-indulgence and Ability to Delay Gratification
Working in Groups and in Institutions

2. Over Others

Brainwashing, Psychotherapy, Drugs and Drug Therapy
The Impact of Advertising and Motivation Research
The Charismatic Figure - Political, Religious, or Social
Welfare Policies
Punishment and the Law - Penal Principles and Systems
Child Training and Socializing Agencies
The Schools and Socialization
    Control over Classmates

E. Man, His Technology and His Environment

- Pollution
- War
- Leisure
- The City and the Suburbs
- Utopias
- Man as Machine

A grid representing the generating of modules by relating areas to topics is shown in Figure 1.

GRID
(Illustrating the modules completed)

	A	B	C	D	E
			Topics		
Area of Psychology	Conflict	Identity	Prejudice	Control	Technology
1. Perception		1-B	1-C	1-D	
2. Motivation and Emotion	2-A	2-B	2-C		2-E
3. Learning		3-B	3-C	3-D	3-E
4. Thinking		4-B	4-C	4-D	
5. Developmental Aspects	5-A	5-B	5-C	5-D	5-E
6. Personality		6-B	6-C	6-D	
7. Social Influences	7-A	7-B	7-C	7-D	7-E

Horizontal Units

Figure 1: The Vertical-Horizontal Grid, Illustrating the Completed Modules.

The Unit

Unit in this course is defined as an organization of modules. Reference to the grid gives an idea of the array within which to choose such organizations or units. Two organizations stand out, and the course of study, so far developed, devotes itself to these two organizations of modules, designated the vertical and the horizontal organizations or units. The vertical unit arrays the areas of psychology against a particular topic, e.g., identity or prejudice. Such a unit would serve to introduce the student to several areas of psychology and their interrelationships. Even here, however, it is not necessary that the teacher take up all of the modules indicated for the unit nor take them in the order indicated.

The teacher may wish to exercise his own selection within the unit and his own sequence to achieve a particular focus. The horizontal unit devotes itself to one area of psychology, e.g., developmental aspects, or social influences, interrelated with the several topics. Such a unit provides opportunity for the study of one area of psychology in greater depth and for the viewing of different topics from a unifying point of view.

No such unit is definitive, i.e., exhausts the modules which could be developed in following the very same pattern. Another curriculum development group working on the same patterns might develop substantially different sets of modules for each unit so far developed. In addition, other clusters of modules, not so regularly following either the vertical or horizontal pattern, could be developed to focus on a particular interrelationship among psychological principles or among topics.

ELEMENTS OF EACH MODULE

1. The Central Principle

The Central Principle(s) of each module, which provides a link to the broad substantive generalizations for the course of psychology, serves to establish the scope within which the basic learnings will be accomplished. It is not to be taught, as such, but is to be utilized as a guide for the teacher, indicating the aim and limits of each module.

2. Key Terms

Within each module, pertinent key terms are designated. A glossary of definitions of all key terms in the course of study is given in section G. Where a key term is followed by the name of an author in parentheses this indicates that the definition of that term is taken from that author's textbook.

3. Instructional Objectives

The instructional objectives are derivations from the modular principle(s). They lend themselves readily to translation into assessible behaviors.

4. Activities

The student activities are suggestions for ways of achieving the objectives within a module. In many cases the teacher will want to add to the activities for a given objective. In all cases the teacher will have to select and tailor the activities, whether from the course of study or other sources, to the interests and needs of his particular students. Note that many of the suggested activities are "personalized" in the sense that they relate to peer group experiences which are common to most students. Care must be taken here so that the activities do not embarrass or otherwise harm or violate the privacy of the individual.

5. Normal - Abnormal Continuum

Provision has been made within each module, where appropriate, for the study of the Central Principle in terms of a normal-abnormal continuum. This is done in order that the students may become aware that behaviors viewed as abnormal involve processes which are found in normal individuals but which have in some ways become disruptive and maladaptive. This is seen as a more interesting and profitable approach to abnormal behavior than the more usual attempt to teach diagnostic categories, symptomatology, etiology, etc.

6. Evaluation Exercises

Evaluation exercises have not been developed for every objective. Enough have been developed, however, to illustrate the close relationship of the evaluation exercises to the objectives from which they are derived, and the kinds and levels of difficulty of evaluation exercises suggested for the course.

7. References

Throughout each module, where applicable, abbreviated references appear in parenthesis. These cite the authors' last name and page numbers. There is a list of references with full citations at the end of the course of study. There has been an attempt to provide references from both teachers' and students' text. It is hoped that in addition to a single basic text, each student will have access to supplementary materials. The course of study has been designed to make possible flexibility in regard to choice of student text as well as supplementary materials.

USE OF STAFF PSYCHOLOGISTS AS CONSULTANTS

A list of MCPS psychologists has been prepared to serve as a guide to resource personnel available to the psychology teachers. These psychologists are prepared to assist teachers, on a limited referral basis, with proposed student projects by providing information and suggesting reference materials. In addition, at the teacher's request, the psychologist will serve as guest speaker. Interested teachers may contact the consultants through the Division of Psychological Services at the Washington Center (279-3631).

RECOMMENDED TEACHER CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

The Maryland State Board of Education bylaws specify a minimum of twenty-four undergraduate hours for certification as a teacher of such elective courses as psychology. The workshop supports this requirement for teachers of psychology, realizing the present difficulties that this entails. On the one hand, as the course of study indicates, the teacher needs considerable background in the field of psychology. And on the other, as an elective, psychology is not staffed in the usual way and is often assigned to a teacher with a combination of other elective subjects. Future workshops might wish to consider certification requirements of teachers of psychology in terms of specific courses, and to make detailed recommendations with regard to course content, particularly in relation to the scope of acceptable courses for teachers of behavioral sciences in general. The necessity of maintaining teacher competence in a field so important both academically and in terms of community interest and sensitivity is paramount.

PREREQUISITE UNIT - INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

PREREQUISITE UNIT - INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

I. PURPOSE

The primary purpose of this unit is to provide the student with some basic understandings of the nature and scope of psychology in order to facilitate the more specific learnings in the units which follow.

Further, it affords the teacher an opportunity to assess the students' knowledge of the field of psychology and their expectations for the course. The suggested material lends itself to expansion or limitation depending upon the needs of the students and the particular interests of the teacher. (Cox, p. 3; Engle and Snellgrove; pp. 2-4; Kalish, p. 4; Wertheimer, et al., p. 2)

II. DEFINITION

Psychology is that science which attempts to describe, understand, predict, and control behavior.

Instructional Objective: Through recognition of an adequate definition of psychology, the student will be able to indicate his understanding of the field in terms of its scope and its emphasis on the understanding and control of behavior.

The teacher may ask the class to define psychology. This might best be approached through class discussion with the teacher guiding the students toward a broad view.

III. HISTORY

Psychology grew out of biology and philosophy and reflects man's continuing concern with understanding and explaining human behavior or "mind." Various explanations have involved supernatural forces, bodily processes, and environmental influences.

Instructional Objective: The student will be able to briefly describe one of the historical developments in psychology, e.g., the movement from emphasis on philosophy to emphasis on behavioral science, the emergence of and period of popularity of any one of the schools of psychology, the broadening of the scope of psychology, etc.

Instructional Objective: The student will be able to name two major figures in history of psychology and make a brief statement about the contribution of each.

The following topics may be of particular interest to the students:

A. Phrenology (Krech, p. 447)

B. Changing treatment of the mentally ill from torture to kindness (Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 408-410; Hilgard, pp. 487-490)

C. Freud's contribution (Wertheimer, et al., pp. 212-213; CRM, Psychology Today, pp. 462-469)

D. Pavlov's contribution (Kalish, pp. 61-63; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 97)

E. The current group movement (Hilgard, pp. 499-501; Krech, pp. 786-787; Wertheimer, et al., pp. 213-214)

Student readings in these areas may be followed by class discussion.

IV. BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY

The field of psychology may be broadly divided into several branches reflecting particular emphases, such as clinical, experimental, educational, social, and industrial psychology. While each of these areas approach the study of human behavior from varying perspectives, they are not mutually exclusive. (Cox, pp. 40-42; Engle; pp. 15-16; Hilgard, pp. 10-13; Kalish, pp. 10-11)

Instructional Objective: The student will be able to give four different examples of the kinds of work psychologists do.

Pose the question to the students, "What does a psychologist do?"

Suggest the following list of activities. Ask the students to identify which of them would be performed by a psychologist.

A. Helps an individual in the area of personal adjustment

B. Performs animal neurosurgery

C. Advises designers of automobile dashboards

D. Facilitates employer-employee relationships

E. Administers tests of personality and intelligence

F. Studies effects of advertising

G. Studies factors involved in learning and memory

H. Trains animals for commercial use

I. Teaches

J. Consults with interior designers

K. Creates propaganda

L. Is instrumental in the development of political campaigns

Point out to the students that all of these and others are functions of psychologists. This may be the place for the teacher to assess the student's perceptions of the course.

V. PSYCHOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

A. The behavioral sciences most clearly allied with psychology are sociology, and cultural anthropology. Increasingly, the study of physiology is considered a necessary requirement to the study of psychology.

The teacher may define other areas of science and show their relationship to psychology.

Instructional Objective: The student will be able to state and illustrate generally the major steps in psychological investigation.

B. All scientific methods of inquiry are based on certain principles. Psychological investigation involves the following: (1) observation, (2) hypothesis formation, (3) experimentation, (4) data analysis, and (5) conclusions or predictions.

Have the students suggest how they would go about investigating a problem in psychology. An example of a problem might be the assessment of tenants' attitudes toward the introduction of pets into their apartment building. (Cox, pp. 26-38; Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 6-15; Hilgard, pp. 13-16; Kalish, pp. 13-18; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 10-16)

C. The use of statistics permits psychologists to describe and infer behaviors compatible with testable hypotheses. The data are never firmly conclusive but are regarded within degrees of confidence. The behavior of a particular individual cannot be predicted through statistics since statistics apply to group probabilities. The following activities with student participation may be helpful in the discussion of statistics:

1. Describe a group of numbers in terms of three measures of central tendency; mean, median, and mode. (Cox, pp. 7-12; Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 4-6; Hilgard, pp. 9-10; Kalish, pp. 8-9)

2. Explain the concept of a normal distribution curve.

3. Give examples of positive, inverse or negative, and zero or no correlation and show that not all correlations reflect cause-effect relationships.

4. Illustrate the above concepts through graphs.

5. Point out that certain predictions can be made for a population on the basis of data drawn from a random sample of that group. Gallup's technique of polling may be cited here. (Cox, pp. 39, 332-333; Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 571-582; Hilgard, pp. 16-20, 392, 525; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 636-665)

UNIT I - PERCEPTION

(Includes Modules 1-B, 1-C, and 1-D)

PERCEPTION - IDENTITY

Module 1-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Selectivity, which underlies all perception, is determined by physiological and psychological needs, and serves to manage the direction and level of stimulation impinging upon the organism.

II. KEY TERMS

Attention

Closure

Perception

Premature Closure

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES*

A. We live surrounded by a sea of stimulation of which we can at any given time perceive only a small part. Selectivity of perception refers to the resulting and inevitable screening of stimuli which has both positive (protective, survival, focus) and negative (premature closure, narrowness, prejudice) value. The student will be able to give examples of selectivity of perception, citing both positive and negative effects of each example. (Kalish, p. 51)

B. An optimal level of stimulation exists for a given person working on a given task. The student will be able to give examples from his own experience of work which suffered from too much stimulation and work which suffered from too little. (Hilgard, _et al_, pp. 153-154)

C. The student will be able to relate some of the physiological and psychological needs to selectivity of perception. (Kalish, pp. 53-56)

D. The student will be able to provide examples of ways in which the need for self-esteem and the need for social acceptance influence selectivity of perception. (Hilgard, _et al_, p. 513)

E. Premature closure may be due to a variety of factors. The student will be able to cite examples, from literature or general experience, of premature closure common in adolescence and to consider, for each of his examples, the relation of the premature closure to: (1) ambiguity of external stimuli, (2) need for self-esteem, (3) need for social acceptance. (Krech, pp. 801-804)

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*These objectives, unlike those listed in most of the modules, fall into something of a sequence, with only the last one directly linked to the central principle. The teacher may thus want to take up the activities, which are keyed to each objective, in the order in which they are listed below.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Interrupt an activity to which the students are attending and ask them to name or list various stimuli in the room to which they have not been attending. The teacher may need to get the students started with some illustrations, e.g., sounds of chairs being moved, noisy heating or air-conditioning, street or corridor noises; things written or pictured at the front of the room; bodily sensations such as the pressure of the chairs in which the students are seated. Make a list organized by sense modalities to illustrate the number and range of stimuli being screened from awareness. Could one perceive all of these available stimuli at one time, or even try? Of what is available, how broad a range do we perceive?

B. (For Obj. A) To illustrate that there are advantages and disadvantages to this selectivity, the teacher might begin by citing or eliciting common examples where failure of selectivity leads to distractability (trying to study in a noisy household, speaking in public and becoming too aware of movements and noise in the audience, etc.). Since this will emphasize the disadvantages of distractability, the teacher could then pose the question of whether distractability or failure of selectivity may have advantages. One way to begin might be by asking the students to think of names for the kind of person who is the opposite of distractable. In addition to favorable terms, like "focused," "efficient," "productive," look for terms suggesting that such a person might also be considered "one track-minded," "insensitive," "closed," "rigid," etc.

C. (For Obj. B) The above discussion can lead naturally into consideration of the optimal level of stimulation for getting a job done. Too much stimulation is an all too common experience; how about too little? Some students are likely to maintain that they cannot study well without music in the background or the TV going. With this kind of comment, the discussion can be moved to a discussion of internal stimulation as opposed to external stimulation which is likely to have dominated thinking to this point in the discussion. What might too much internal stimulation be like; how might such a situation come about?

D. (For Obj. C) Have students read and discuss experiments with subjects deprived of food. (See Kalish, p. 53; Krech, et al, pp. 172-177.)

Then move to a discussion of the influence of psychological needs on perception, using the Bruner and Goodman (1947) experiment in which children of different economic levels estimated the size of coins,[2] and the McClelland experiments which manipulated achievement-motive arousal and showed the effects on fantasy (stories told about TAT pictures). (Hilgard, et al, p. 156; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 208-209)

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[2] Jerome S. Bruner and C. C. Goodman, "Value and Need As Organizing Factors In Perception," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 42 (1947): 33-44.

E. (For Obj. D)* Describe or conduct an experiment similar to the Asch experiments on group influence on judgments of length of lines. (Krech, et al, p. 829; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 622-623)

F. (For Obj. E) In class discussion, the teacher might take students through some well-known literary examples of premature closure, for example, Elizabeth Bennett's initial judgment of Darcy in Jane Austen's Pride and Prejudice; West Side Story; Twelve Angry Men; and Lee's To Kill a Mockingbird. The teacher should note, with each example, the relation of the initial judgment to: (1) ambiguity of external stimuli; (2) need for self-esteem; (3) need for social acceptance.

G. (For Obj. E) Assign students roles and ask them to perceive TAT pictures (or other neutral pictures) from the point of view of their designated roles. Discuss to what extent their perceptions were influenced by the assigned role, and how a person's role may be a factor in premature closure.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to give examples which show that the concept of closure with regard to social perceptions exists on a continuum from premature closure to an inability to reach closure even in the face of a need to do so. (Krech, et al, pp. 801-804)

B. Activities

Ask students to recall instances when they have been caught in a dilemma, a choice between alternatives which they were at least temporarily unable to resolve. Was it because both choices seemed equally good? Equally bad? How was the choice resolved? Could permanent inability to resolve a dilemma in the face of a pressing need to do so be seen as a kind of paralysis? How could it come about? (See Kagan and Havemann, pp. 375-377, and p. 380.) In what kind of a person? How about the person given to premature closure, what kind of a person is he likely to be? (See Krech, et al, p. 704 and p. 815.)

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) Choose one of the following examples. To what aspects of the situation might a person attend? Describe one advantage and one disadvantage of selectivity of perception in each instance:

1. Driving in city traffic

2. Studying in a library where people are talking in low voices

3. Regarding someone as your friend (or enemy)

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*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.

B. (For Obj. C) Ted is walking down a busy street in the heart of town. He passes restaurants, a health clinc, law offices, a large department store, and an executive office building. Hurrying past him are people from a variety of social classes and ethnic backgrounds, with varied styles of dress.

Describe how each of two of the following needs might influence selectivity of perception in Ted's situation:

1. Hunger
2. Stimulation (novelty)
3. Self-esteem
4. Membership in a group
5. Constancy

C. (For Obj. D) John, a relatively studious person, has just moved from a well-to-do suburb to another state and is attending high school there. While his former classmates studied hard and dressed carefully in the latest and most sophisticated style, his peers at his new school are more casual, less fashion-conscious in their dress, and less studious. One day he is asked by his new classmates to describe his former school and friends.

Answer one of the following questions:

1. How might a high need for self-esteem influence John's perception and description of his former school and friends?
2. How might a high need for social acceptance by his peers at the new school influence his perception and description of his former school and friends?

D. (For Obj. E) For each of the following, assume that the situation represents an example of premature closure and state whether it is due to (1) ambiguity of external stimuli, (2) need for self-esteem, or (3) need for social acceptance.

1. ____________________ The decision, as a class, that a certain teacher is "awful" (or "great") after the first class meeting.

2. ____________________ The decision that your parents' treatment of your little sister (or brother) is "wrong" because it is different and less strict than their treatment of you at that age.

3. ____________________ A decision that all politicians are corrupt based on watching a few hours of the Watergate Hearings.

4. ____________________ Deciding that a person with long hair, jeans, sandles, shirt and tie is a "freak" by attending to his long hair and ignoring the fact he is wearing a tie.

5. ____________________ The decision that the latest fashion, which all your friends are wearing, would look great on you and is something you must have, even though it will make you look heavier.

PERCEPTION - PREJUDICE

Module 1-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPAL

From birth, the individual begins a process of perceptual categorizing which becomes increasingly refined over time. Thus, perception of the environment always represents an organization based upon the individual's previous learning. (Kalish, pp. 49-58; Krech, et al, p. 797; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 168-172)

II. KEY TERMS

Attitude

Discrimination

Hallucination

Illusion

Perception

Perceptual Constancy

Prejudice

Set (Perceptual)

Threshold

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. No individual is able to take in everything available to his senses. When working toward a goal, improving the match between one's perception and reality necessitates narrowing the scope of the reality attended to; greater efficiency necessitates some loss of openness. To illustrate his understanding of the perceptual discrimination process, the student will be able to give examples of the built-in inevitable trade-off between gain and loss of vision when perception is viewed in this way.

B. Selectivity involves a number of components among which are set and longer-term dispositions such as attitudes. The student will be able to give examples from his own experience of the concept of set as a readiness to perceive in one way rather than another. (Examples: An individual learns a new word and then sees it often or buys a new car and sees that model everywhere.) (Cox, pp. 250-253; Kalish, pp. 49-58; Krech, et al, pp. 172-180; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 168-172)

C. The student will illustrate with examples that one of the complications of perception is the varying degree of interpretation which may be involved, from perceptions so basic that they are almost universal to perceptions which are highly individualized.

D. The student will realize that the knowledge that the perception is distorted or false does not necessarily inhibit the perception.

E. The student will be able to distinguish between the terms "illusion" and "hallucination."

F. The student will be able to give examples of some perceptual constancies.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) The following may help illustrate the notion of selectivity in perception. An individual may feel a need to fasten on specifics in the presence of a complex whole. (Examples: following one player in a football game, trying to view a painting which fills an entire gallery wall, focusing on one ring in a three-ring circus.) To illustrate this to the class, the teacher may bring in a detailed picture and have the students observe it. Later a discussion might ensue concerning what was observed. The students should note, in particular, whether the emphasis or focus of their observation was on the Gestalt at the cost of losing details or on individual details at the expense of not being able to take in the whole.

B. (For Objs. A and B) To illustrate perceptual individuality, read a passage from a book to the class. Ask the students to explain how they perceive a particular character from the passage. Point out that perception itself and motivation to perceive in a certain way are inseparable. The same idea may be obtained from the films Rashamon and The Eye of the Beholder. (The latter is available in the MCPS film library, film number 4329. The former is also available in play form.)

C. (For Obj. B)* Illustrate varied perception of a single object due to differences in perceptual set. To accomplish this, the teacher may show to the students a picture of two men standing on a bus; one black, one white (Wertheimer, p. 148). Before showing the picture, the teacher will explain to the class that recently there have been numerous instances of racial conflict on buses. To one group, the teacher will indicate that such encounters have involved blacks exhibiting agressive behavior towards whites. To a second group, he/she will indicate that the reverse is true. The picture will then be observed by the class, and the students will describe what they see. Later a discussion might be held comparing and contrasting the various responses. In particular, the students should examine the way in which the picture was viewed varied with the expectations or set with which the students viewed it. (Other demonstrations that are similar are: Leeper's experiment (Krech, p. 176) and Bugelski's Rat Man (CRM, 1970, p. 321.)

D. (For Obj. B) This experiment also demonstrates how judgments may be prejudiced by perceptual sets. Divide the class into two groups. Each group is shown a series of ten briefly-presented pictures (10 seconds each). One group sees animal pictures and the other group

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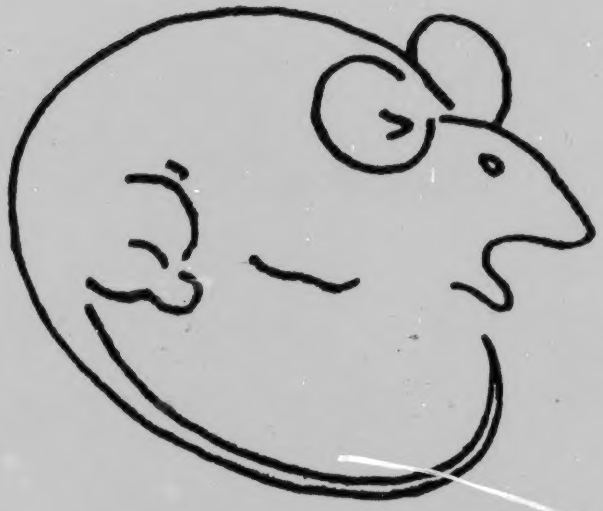
*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.



Bugelski's "Rat Man" for Activity D

sees pictures of human faces. The students are to write down the subject portrayed in each picture, such as "lion" or "girl," depending on the group. Then each group is shown the Bugelski Rat-man figure (CRM, 1970, p. 321). The perception of rat or human face should be affected by preparatory set. For additional activities illustrating perceptual set, the teacher may consult Section III of _Experiments On A Shoestring_, by Minahan and Costin.

E. (For Obj. B)* The following will serve to illustrate the concept of "set." The teacher will ask for a volunteer from the class to participate in a brief experiment. The teacher will then perform the following in order to "set up" the student so that he/she will give the desired response. The teacher will direct the student to spell "spot" four times in rapid succession. Immediately afterward the student will be asked to answer the following question: "What do you do when you come to a green light?"

If the directions are given briskly, the student will tend to say "stop" even though the correct answer would be "go." This is because he/she has been _set up_ to attend to the distinction between the words "spot" and "stop," and in the process, neglects the appropriate response "go."

F. (For Objs. C and D) Illustrate errors in perception with various senses. Examples:

1. On a hot day, the pavement appears wet (mirage).

2. Optical illusion (Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 297-298; Hilgard, _et al_, pp. 144-145; Kalish, p. 57; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 164)

3. With the sense of smell hindered, an individual may not be able to discriminate on the basis of taste. To illustrate, the teacher might cut a potato, an apple, and an onion into bite-size pieces and feed them, in random order, to a student volunteer who is both blindfolded and wearing a swimmer's nose clip (or in some other way is prevented from breathing through his nose during the experiment). Record the student's responses and question him later on what cues, such as texture, beside actual taste he used to distinguish between the foods.

G. (For Objs. C and F) To illustrate how perception is complicated by the varying degree of interpretation involved, the teacher might discuss with the students the degree of interpretation involved in perceiving another's emotions, such as anger. While it might not involve much interpretation to perceive that a red-faced, blustering person is angry, it might take a great deal more interpretation to perceive that certain behavior by another individual (e.g., silence, a hard stare, fidgeting) is a sign of anger. Thus perception of anger in a character in a movie is easier than perception of anger in a friend. In the former, universally recognizable behavior may be deliberately employed; the latter may require a higher degree of interpretation. (See Krech, _et al_, box, pp. 550-551.)

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*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.

Following this, students might consider the differing amounts of interpretation (and the likelihood of variation in interpretation) between perceptions in the social realm such as those above and perceptions of material objects such as tables, blackboards, etc. in the classroom. Students who do not think interpretation is involved in the perception of material objects can be briefly introduced to the topic of perceptual constancy. (See Hilgard, et al, pp. 136-141; Kagan and Havemann, pp. 242-248; Kalish, pp. 56-57.)

Is ambiguity, and thus interpretation, more likely to be involved in perceptions in the interpersonal realm? Does this make prejudice more prevalent in perceptions of interpersonal events as opposed to perceptions of material events (e.g., considering the possible cause of an engine failure; viewing a painting)? The students should be encouraged to consider prejudice in connection with the latter realm, and as existing on a continuum (see the Normal-Abnormal section of this module).

With regard to perceptual constancies, the students might enjoy considering whether the social amenities sometimes serve as "constancies" in the realm of interpersonal perceptions. Do such forms as extending one's hand in a greeting, saying "excuse me," a man holding a door open for a woman to go before him, etc., tend to impose a constant (i.e., fixed and shared) perception of social events which might otherwise be more open to varied interpretation?

H. (For Obj. D) Some illusions are so compelling in nature that even when recognized as illusions, the illusory effect remains.

1. The Ponzo illusion (Hilgard, et al, p. 144) may be recognized, but one line still appears longer than the other.
2. An airplane pilot flying blind, upon losing his sense of balance, may not believe his instruments.
3. The perceived backward movement of the spokes of a wagon wheel (as seen in a movie) is illusory.
4. The perceived movement of a stationary train when a moving train passes by is also illusory.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student should be able to give examples of how the readiness involved in the concept of set exists on a continuum.

B. Activities

1. The students could be encouraged to give examples where they have been so ready to hear, see, taste, etc. something that they have grossly misinterpreted, a sound, sight, flavor, etc, in favor of what they anticipated. (CRM, Psychology Today, p. 244)

2. The teacher might illustrate a continuum of readiness with the example of a mother's alertness to her newborn's crying, then that alertness becoming so acute as to lead the mother to misinterpret other sounds (e.g., other sounds in the house at night) as the sound of the baby crying; or conceivably leading further, to the mother hearing her baby cry in a situation where that is not possible (e.g., mother has had to be hospitalized while the baby remained at home). The last may be considered an halucination if the mother is incapable of correcting the impression.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) The school nurse has examined two children exhibiting mild fevers and red blotches on the skin and has made the diagnosis of measles. A teacher tells her that she is sending down another child who is feeling ill. Invoking the concept of "set," discuss the way the school nurse will examine this third child. What are the advantages and disadvantages of "set" in this case?

B. (For Obj. A) Discuss the perceptual selectivity process in terms of gains and losses to the observer.

C. (For Obj. B) In the eighth grade, Beth had a social studies teacher who gave only multiple-choice examinations. Beth is now in the ninth grade and her new social studies teacher has informed the class that they will have their first exam next week. What type of exam will Beth be likely to study for? What psychological concept does this illustrate?

D. (For Obj. D) Give examples of commonly-known optical illusions where the viewer tends to continue to perceive the distortion even after he has knowledge that an illusion exists.

E. (For Obj. D) True or False - Optical illusions tend to persist even when the viewer knows the stimulus to be illusory.

F. (For Obj. E) Tell whether each of the following situations is an example of an illusion or an hallucination:

1. While checking the dimly-lit building after a party, the chairman of the dance committee "sees" a "person" leaning against the wall at the far end of the dance hall. As he gets closer, he realizes that it is a forgotten coat hanging on a wall hook.

2. A woman is alone in her house. She (suddenly) hears the voice of her mother who has been dead several years. The voice continues for several minutes.

G. How can we tell whether any particular example of false perception is an hallucination or an illusion? Discuss.

NOTE TO TEACHER: While there may be some cases in which the distinction is not clear, the deciding factor is generally the degree of directness of external stimulation involved

PERCEPTION - CONTROL

Module 1-D

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Perceptions arise not only from sensations based on stimuli in the external environment but from sensations based on internal stimuli, viz., when the immediate source of stimulation is within the body. When certain of these internally induced perceptions are associated with the advent of particular behaviors, as in the case of a feeling of tightness in the chest heralding an angry outburst, they can serve as cues (Sanford, pp. 232-233). Once the perceptions have acquired signal properties, control can be exerted over behaviors. Whether or not such control is exercised then becomes a matter of the individual's decision, and thus an aspect of his self-control.

II. KEY TERMS

Cue

Internal Stimuli

Perception

III. LEARNINGS

A. The student will be able to differentiate the terms perception and cue.

B. By understanding how perceptions of internal events can assume a cuing function, the student will be able to discuss how an individual, in such circumstances, may choose to permit the progression of a behavioral sequence or how he may interrupt or divert it.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A and B) The instructor will present the following case history: Toby, an adolescent of normal intelligence, had little impulse control and was easily provoked to excessive displays of violent aggression. As a result, he was involved in numerous fights and was increasingly likely to inflict permanent injury on his adversary of the moment. Following these episodes, Toby was invariably contrite and repentant. A plan to answer Toby's request for assistance was developed. In brief:

1. Toby was to build awareness of his body processes by periodically monitoring his reactions while engaged in various activities, paying particular attention to situations conducive to anger.
2. He was to identify his physical feelings connected with anger sufficiently to label and describe them, e.g., feeling hot all over, muscle tension, etc.

3. This accomplished, he was to attend to these cues by leaving the situation and going to a resource center where he could relieve the tension through discussion or appropriate physical release.

As Toby became adept at recognizing and controlling his behavioral sequence before "the point of no return," the assaultive encounters diminished noticeably and the alternatives began to assume positive value in themselves.

A general discussion should follow with regard to this technique, its advantages (such as the development of control not dependent upon external forces) and disadvantages (such as the difficulty in eliciting consistency and cooperation in staff personnel), etc.

B. (For Obj. A and B) From their own experience, ask the students to list perceptions accompanying the conditions of (1) extreme fatigue, (2) anxiety, and (3) anger. Have them compare their lists for common responses and ask them to consider the origin of unusual responses.

C. Discuss and debate with the students the several theories of emotion (Sanford, pp. 241-245; Hilgard, pp. 341-342).

V. NORMAL-ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The use of perceptions of internal events so as to facilitate self-control may range from total repression of sensation to extreme preoccupation with body processes. Therefore, the student should understand that such pathological conditions as conversion hysteria and hypochondria are representative of opposing but equally maladaptive limits of this continuum.

B. Activity

Ask the class to consider the case of Toby in terms of how his response to the training plan might have exceeded the optimal limits in either direction to the point of an inability to deal realistically with stress. What kinds of behaviors might he have exhibited in either case?

UNIT II - MOTIVATION

(Includes Modules 2-A, 2-B, 2-C, and 2-E)

MOTIVATION - CONFLICT

Module 2-A

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Motives are energizing and directional sources of behavior. Because they move the organism to interact with its environment, either to seek satisfaction or reduce discomfort, they bring the organism into situations of tension and conflict. Awareness of one's motivation is an important element in the avoidance or resolution of conflict.

II. KEY TERMS

Drive

Incentive, positive or negative

Instinct

Motive

Need

Territorial Imperative

Unconscious motive

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to describe two difficulties in defining the term motive. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 312-315; Krech, et al, p. 483)

B. The student will be able to define and differentiate among motive,* need, and drive.

C. The student will be able to state, in terms of the study of inherited dispositions, an argument for or against Robert Ardrey's thesis that man has a built-in need (territoriality) which impels him toward aggression.

D. The student will be able to describe generally some of the evidence supporting the existence of unconscious motives.

E. The student will be able to describe briefly an interpersonal interaction between two or more people in terms of their underlying motivations, including the degree to which they are generally complementary or generally in opposition.

F. The student will be able to give examples supporting the following proposition: since motives can bring us into conflict situations, it follows that unconscious motives can bring us into conflicts of whose origins we are only poorly aware.

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*There is not close agreement on the use of this term. It is most often used as a general term encompassing inferred goal-seeking states of the organism whether or not they have a physiological basis.

G. The student, referring to one of the examples of conflicting motivation used in connection with the other instructional objectives of this module, will be able to show how awareness of one's motivation can aid an individual in ameliorating or avoiding conflict.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A and B) An opening activity might begin with the teacher asking students to name as many motives as they can while the teacher lists their responses on the board. References to characters in popular novels, movies, etc. which the students are likely to have read or seen may be used to stimulate a long list. Following discussion of the purpose served by the term motive (to explain why people do things; to express what gets people started; to explain what keeps people trying; to describe the directions different people take; etc.), the teacher might seek from the students or suggest to them a definition of motive which includes its goal-seeking character and the elements of activation, persistence, and direction which are aspects of the goal-seeking.

The students might then be asked to subdivide the list. Are there different kinds or categories of motives on the list? To guide discussion, initially or after the students have attempted some categorizing on their own, the teacher might suggest some dimensions or categories:

1. Basic or primary motives versus derived, learned, or secondary motives. Various bases for deciding which are the primary motives, e.g., social importance, strength and controllingness, universality among all men and cultures, universality among at least the higher animals, are likely to be considered along with the common one of whether the motive has a specific physiological basis (hunger, thirst, sex, etc.). The teacher might want to comment on the importance of this latter basis for defining motives (needs and drives, really) in terms of the psychologist's need for precise and reliable measures of the phenomena he investigates. Motives with a specific physiological basis could be contrasted with those for which none is apparent (curiosity; manipulativeness; desire for recognition, power, or achievement; etc.).

2. Motives which are related to appetites or pleasure-seeking versus those related to aversions or avoidance of discomfort (pain, humiliation, physical injury, etc.). This distinction can be used as a reminder to the students that all motives are not appetites, moving people toward things (positive incentives). Depending on how far a teacher wishes to lead a group of students in this direction, this distinction may be used as a basis for considering all motivated behavior in terms of appetites (approach behavior) and aversions (avoidance behavior). More able and interested students may go on to consider (1) the role of incentives in motivation, (2) the interaction between drive and incentive, and (3) the relative merits of a drive theory of motivation versus an appetites and aversions theory (Hilgard, et al, pp. 304-304 and 308-310).

B. (For Obj. C) The teacher should refer to Module 5-C (Developmental-Prejudice) in Unit V, Instructional Objectives A and B and Activity A, for aid in getting the students to realize some of the difficulties of defining an instinct and the relationship of this term to the heredity versus environment controversy.

C. (For Obj. C)* An approach to learning about the concept of instinct in the context of conflict would have the students consider the general proposition of whether man's biological inheritance predisposes him to conflict and violence. To introduce this topic, the teacher might, by prearrangement, have a few students seat themselves at the beginning of a class session in seats which are customarily taken by other students in that class. After allowing a certain amount of disruption and expressions of resentment to take place, the teacher should announce that he asked the students to change their accustomed seats in order to illustrate a psychological phenomenon, then ask the displaced students to comment on their feelings on finding their usual seats taken. This discussion could be augmented by then having all of the students relate the feelings just expressed to those which they might have in the following situations:

1. The student is seated in his parked car when a passing stranger stops and sits on the fender.

2. The student is on a date with his girl friend when a boy who is a stranger to them walks up and tries to become friendly with his girl.

3. The student drives up to his house expecting to park in his usual place in front of it and finds all of the available space taken by cars unknown to him.

4. The student is having an intense political discussion with someone who gets closer and closer as he argues with the student.

5. The student comes to the dinner table at home and finds his usual seat taken by his brother or sister.

This discussion of feelings centering around displacement can serve as an introduction to the idea of territoriality. The teacher can convey the idea with the following: (Excerpted from The Territorial Imperative by Robert Ardrey. Copyright © 1970. Reprinted by permission of Atheneum Publishers, pp. 3-4)

> "A territory is an area of space, whether of water or earth or air, which an animal or group of animals defends as an exclusive preserve. The word is also used to describe the inward compulsion in animate beings to possess and defend such a space. A territorial species of animals, therefore, is one in which all males, and sometimes females too, bear an inherent drive to gain and defend an exclusive property.

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*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.

> We may also say that in all territorial species, without exception, possession of a territory lends enhanced energy to the proprietor. Students of animal behavior cannot agree as to why this should be, but the challenger is almost invariably defeated, the intruder expelled. In part, there seems some mysterious flow of energy and resolve which invests a proprietor on his home grounds. But likewise, so marked is the inhibition lying on the intruder, so evident his sense of trespass we may be permitted to wonder if in all territorial species there does not exist, more profound than simple learning, some universal recognition of territorial rights.
>
> The concept of territory as a genetically determined form of behavior in many species is today accepted beyond question in the biological sciences. But so recently have our observations been made and our conclusions formed that we have yet to explore the implications of territory in our estimates of man. Is Homo sapiens a territorial species? Do we stake out property, chase off trespassers, defend our countries because we are sapient, or because we are animals? Because we choose, or because we must? Do certain laws of territorial behavior apply as rigorously in the affairs of men as in the affairs of chipmunks?"

Short discussions in the teacher texts may also be used here, either as assigned readings or to be read in class. These deal with aggression, both as a biological drive and as a complex human expression: Hilgard, et al, p. 319 ("Critical Discussion," The Evolution of Aggression); Hilgard, et al, p. 449 ("Critical Discussion," The Physiological Basis of Aggression); CRM, Psychology Today, pp. 144-145 (on the physiology of aggression); CRM, Psychology Today, pp. 490-497 (on conflict, aggression, and adjustment in humans)

The following questions, to which there are no easy answers, may be used for class discussion and/or as topics for independent study:

1. Does territoriality have a specific physiological basis in man? In other animals?

2. More generally, does territoriality insofar as it exists in man conform to the textbook definition of a drive or is it a learned motive?

3. What are the implications of one's answer to question 2 above in terms of one's hopefulness for mankind's future? If there is such a drive, is man doomed to conflict and violence? Or is there evidence that, no matter how conflictful man's biological predispositions may be they are not so definitely patterned as to resist being channeled (shaped, sublimated) into less destructive behavior? Relevant readings on this point, in addition to The Territorial Imperative are: Morton Deutch, in McKinney, pp. 291-308; Williams James, "The Moral Equivalent of War," in

Memories and Studies; Robert Ardrey, in Annual Editions, Readings in Psychology, 1972, pp. 196-205 or in Annual Editions, Readings in Psychology, 1972-73, pp. 192-201.

The teacher who wishes to have some students go more deeply into the question of what biological predispositions may be built into behavior may find this a good point at which to introduce the idea of imprinting. Short discussions of this idea and of the work of the ethologists may be found in Hilgard, et al, pp. 302-303; Krech, et al, pp. 4-5 (Box) and pp. 62-63 (Box); McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 74-76; and CRM, Psychology Today, pp. 101-102. Some questions to be considered in connection with imprinting are:

1. Does imprinting exist in humans or only in lower animals?
2. To what extent does imprinting represent a refinement of the older idea, instinct?
3. In imprinting terms, does the invasion of one's territory act as a releaser of the agressive territorial imperative in that person? How like or unlike the actions of releasers in lower animals are the evidences of the territorial imperative in man?

D. (For Obj. D) Administration of a semantic differential scale to students may serve as a safe introduction to the topic of unconscious motives. A semantic differential scale, along with the procedure for administering it and collecting the data, may be found on pp. 74-76 of Experiments on a Shoestring. These pages also contain an alternate set of nouns (sometimes called concepts or stimulus words) for use with such a scale. Other nouns as well as other adjective pairs may be found in Hilgard, et al, pp. 272-273 and in McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 311-313. Following administration and scoring of the scale, the teacher can point out to the students the connotations which the test words (nouns) have for them as revealed by the semantic differential scale. For some students, the test word rosebud might connote goodness, weakness, and passivity; for others, the test word fate might be viewed as somewhat bad, neither very strong nor very weak, and quite passive. The teacher may have to try different groups of nouns and of adjective pairs to come up with those most likely to contain surprises for the student. There is no need to try to make things tricky or personal to achieve this. Test words like mother or father are best omitted. Further, the administration and scoring procedures, it should be noted, maintain the anonimity of the individual student's responses. What is meant here is simply that students who may not be surprised to find that they have connotations of goodness for the test word peace or of activity for hero may be surprised at the connotations for rosebud and fate noted above. Connotations which surprise the student, i.e., of which he was previously partly or wholly unaware, may serve as a basis for initiating discussion of the unconscious. How is it that the students had connotations (meanings) of which they were not aware for these words? Are these connotations for a given word sometimes common among the students and sometimes not? Are they sometimes different for the boys than for the girls? The point is to impress the students with the number of attitudes or feelings which they hold but of which they are not aware. Might the same be true of their motives?

E. (For Obj. D) Two approaches to giving students some meaningful introductory experience relevant to unconscious motives stem from work done in the realm of achievement motivation. (See Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 209-214, and CRM, Psychology Today, pp. 153-155). Possible introductory exercises are suggested on pp. 210-211 and p. 155 of these books, respectively. The first enables the teacher to succinctly review the measurement of achievement motivation and have students review and contrast the two responses to the stimulus pictures. The second provides sufficient information for students to score themselves on achievement need, take and score their own doodles test, and on this basis consider unconscious motives.

Each of the above two activities provides a point at which the teacher might introduce the dynamic (instinctual) basis of psychoanalytic theory. (The teacher may, on the other hand, wish to reserve this topic for fuller treatment in connection with theories of personality within one of the personality modules.) The teacher who takes up the topic at this point can find summaries of psychoanalytic instinctual theory in the following texts: Hilgard, et al, pp. 319-321; Gordon, pp. 90-91; CRM, Psychology Today, pp. 464-466; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 217-218; and Hall and Lindzey, pp. 35-40.

F. (For Obj. D) The above activities dealing with unconscious motivation should furnish a meaningful basis for consideration of the several perhaps more arresting areas of behavior in which the existence of unconscious motives is usually inferred. Any of the following three areas are fruitful avenues for independent or classroom study of unconscious motives both as expressions of conflict and producers of conflict.

Dreams - Hilgard, et al, pp. 171-172; Kalish, pp. 84-86; Kresh, et al, pp. 764-765; Gordon, pp. 150-160; Hall and Lindzey, pp. 56-57

Hypnosis - Kagan and Havemann, p. 95 and p. 358; Gordon, p. 256; Sanford and Wrightsman, 217-218

Slips of Speech - Freud, pp. 25-71

General - Louis L. Robbins, "Unconscious Motivation," in Guthrie, pp. 119-123

G. (For Objs. D, E, F, and G) The students might be asked to recall instances of their very first meetings with people. Were there occasions when, from the very first contact, they were strongly moved toward or away from the person; moved to pleasure, to offer help, or to aversion and the desire to leave? What motive generally speaking, might have underlain, such reactions? Were they motives of which the students were aware? Have students recall how often they have been strongly moved in such situations without being able to explain why to themselves.

H. (For Objs. E, F, and G) To illustrate that motives of which we are not aware may lead us into conflict situations, the teacher should emphasize the number of motives - of differing strength, persistence, and direction - at work in any given individual at any particular moment: motives having to do with achievement, affiliation, aggression, autonomy, defense, dominance, exhibition, nurturance, order, playfulness, etc. The students might enjoy coming up with whole complexes of motives possibly at work at critical points in the lives of fictional characters with which they are familiar. The many motives likely to be involved at any given moment, and their fluctuation in strength and direction, should be emphasized.

The teacher could then raise the issue of the likelihood that the complex motivational states of two people engaged in an interaction will be perfectly complementary at all points. Is it likely that the demands of any interaction will be smoothly matched with all of the needs of the parties? Or is it more likely that there will be conflicts if only because of the variety and changing character of the many needs at work in the situation? It should be emphasized that these conflicting motives may be at the center of the interaction and the individual's awareness but that many of them will be, at best, at the periphery of awareness. The teacher may give this last point more vividness by citing the immediate classroom situation: the many motives of the students directing them at that moment away from the topic at hand and the many motives of the teacher directed toward dealing with the topic. In any situation, satisfaction of some motives is likely to be held in abeyance (e.g., in the classroom situation, the desire to play, to act independently, to express anger), while other motives may be satisfied at least partially through various modifications (e.g., the desire to play through the exchange of a classroom joke, independence through openness of discussion, aggression through critical comments). The greater the awareness of the motives involved, the greater one's ability to understand what is going on in an interaction and to find at least partially satisfactory substitutes for motives likely to produce conflict.

MOTIVATION - IDENTITY

Module 2-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Five of the higher order needs commonly attributed to the individual are:

A. A need for constancy and predictability

B. A need to feel that one is a valued and valuable individual

C. A need for membership in one or more collectivities

D. A need to maintain a relatively stable view of oneself as a person with characteristic needs, values, motives, habits, etc.

E. A need for mastery or some ability to control

II. KEY TERMS

Drive

Motivation

Need

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to distinguish between a definition of need and a definition of drive. (Hilgard, et al, p. 304)

B. The student will be able to define motivation and name one of the problems involved in defining motivation. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 314-315)

C. The student will be able to support the proposition that the larger part of each individual's daily activities, in both the physical and social realms, reflects the need for constancy. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 329-330)

D. The student will be able to discuss apparent exceptions to the need for membership in collectivities, arguing either: (1) that cases such as those of the hermit, the loner, and the constant dissenter are true exceptions to the need, or (2) that these are only apparent exceptions which support the need, i.e., the need is still present but in disguised form. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 92-93; Kalish pp. 327-333)

E. The student should be able to cite ways in which each of the needs mentioned in the central principle is satisfied differently in infancy, adolescence, and adulthood. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 68-79, 88-96)

F. The student, referring to these same needs, will be able to cite ways in which achieving a sense of self as an independent and autonomous person in adolescence involves altered relations with parental figures. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 92-94)

G. The student will be able to illustrate the five needs dealt with in the module.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A and B) Introductory discussion could center about the questions, "What are motives and needs?"; "Why do we need these concepts?"; "How do we study them?" The distinction between needs and drives, while perhaps not made in the student texts, is made clear in the teacher texts (see Hilgard, et al, p. 295) and bears on the question of how we study needs. The students might enjoy making up their own list of human needs, then taking the whole array of suggested needs and trying to organize them. The different attempts at organization should yield information on some of the difficulties of dealing with needs. Which ones are truly needs? In accordance with what criteria? Do they have to be identifiable in all individuals or just most individuals? In animals as well as man or just in man? Should the array of needs named by the students be organized in what appears to be an evolutionary sequence? In terms of their importance to man as we interpret his essential nature? From the standpoint of one (e.g., self-actualization) or two (e.g., sex and aggression) basic needs from which the rest are seen as derived? Emphasis should be on impressing the students not only with the importance of defining needs and hierarchies of needs, but with the implied preferences and value judgments which accompany any definition once one ventures beyond the obvious physiological needs.

B. (For Obj. C) The teacher might begin by proposing the following statement for discussion: People tend to perform the bulk of their activities in routine ways. Examples: path to and from daily destination, pattern of buttoning shirt, donning and removing socks in routine order, pattern of bathing or showering, shaving, brushing hair, etc.

The teacher could then carry this beyond the interaction with physical objects and extend it to the realm of social interaction, such as greeting rituals, social amenities, and manners. A multitude of both social and physical arrangements induce the individual to act, most of the time, in fixed, regular ways. His work, for example, is likely to take place at carefully specified hours in fixed location(s), under implicit and explicit regulations - all in accordance with the physical means and social expectations surrounding him. This may even be substantially true of the individual's recreational activities. The social and physical fabric of which we are each a part compels a great amount of habitual behavior in the service of our common need for constancy and predictability. In considering such a statement, the teacher should encourage the students to focus on their own routines and the way in which the surrounding structure, physical and social, shapes these toward regularity, e.g., their seating arrangements in classes, activities between classes, and activities before and after school.

The teacher could, at some point in this discussion, focus on the question: "How well would we function without routines?" This relates to the need for predicting events in one's environment, especially the behavior of others. For examples, the need for trust in one's fellow man not to force one off the sidewalk as one walks by, not to commit murder on impulse, not to slam on auto brakes without reason or regard for the safety of others, etc. In daily activity, we orinarily assume that certain tasks will be performed in routine, predictable fashion. In the absence of such assumptions or if such assumptions repeatedly prove faulty, the world would seem a very chaotic and threatening place. Great anxiety would almost assuredly result as well as great inefficiency as each person attempted to provide for the increased uncertainties.

C. (For Objs. A, B. and C) Objective C could be related to Objectives A and B by posing the question, "Is there, beyond the advantages of efficiency, a true need for constancy?" The students might examine lists of needs in different texts to see if a need for constancy is mentioned; if not, why not? Also, how like or unlike are these lists? What is the students' definition of a need in accordance with which they argue for or against a need for constancy? The teacher may wish to use this particular discussion of constancy as a take-off point for examination of hierarchies of needs. This could be done by noting the way in which routines free us to seek out and engage in new experiences. Thus, without efficient means of meeting simpler or more primary needs, the more complex or higher needs might never be addressed or satisfied. Too much time and effort would be spent in performing simple functions.

D. (For Objs. D and E) The students could bring in examples from literature and current events illustrating how the five higher order needs mentioned in the Central Principle may be at work in a variety of situations and for people of different ages, e.g., being a guest at a large, informal social gathering; a parent or a child at the family dinner table; a car buyer in a new car showroom; a child at overnight camp for the first time; a crewman in a submarine; an adolescent who has just received his driving license and is being allowed for the first time to use the family car on his own; etc. With each example, the students should be asked to consider how the individuals might vary in their responses if the situation were such as to deny them satisfaction of one or more of the five needs.

The examples of the party guest and the submarine crewman will be compared and contrasted here with regard to constancy and predictability by way of illustrating how the activity might go. Both guest and crewmen have the need for constancy and predictability satisfied by a myriad of informal amenities and more formal rules which set the boundaries within which expected behavior occurs. At the social gathering, the informal predominate (e.g., with regard to greetings, gift-giving, selection of topics of conversation and openness in pursuing them), but some areas are governed more formally and explicitly (e.g., attending the gathering in the first place usually depends upon an explicit invitation; dress at a wedding, prom, or costume party may become a matter of explicit stipulation; kinds of drink served to minors, crowd capacity if the party is in a public room, parking, etc. are influenced or directly controlled by the most explicit of public rules - laws).

For the party guest, lack of constancy and consequent inability to predict what behavior is appropriate ordinarily results in no more than minor embarrassment. Picture, however, how great or even serious the social breach may be when the guest is in a country whose customs are foreign to him. The students could also consider here how widely people vary in their need to be able to predict in this kind of social situation, from the person who feels sure that whatever he does cannot be really incorrect to the party goer who is in agony about whether every detail of his attire or his conversation is "correct." Is the latter reaction ridiculous or is it just a more extreme form of what most of us feel when in a strange, i.e., different and unpredictable, situation?

Aboard the submarine the crewman also has his social exchanges and relationships limited in range by amenities and rules. But the formal and explicit rules are generally more prominent, particularly so when he is on duty, during drills and emergencies, etc. What about the submariner's reactions and his relations with his fellow crewmen should he somehow lose confidence in the authority of his ship's officers and consequently in the rules governing his relations with the officers? (The Caine Mutiny by Herman Wouk might be referred to here.) Or if the crewman decides that the ship's mission is immoral and unconscionable, how does this affect the predictability of his relations with the rest of the crew, from their point of view as well as his?

The need for constancy and predictability has been used in the above examples, but the other needs could have been used as well and should be equally stressed in classroom discussion. With regard to all five, the teacher should note how closely interrelated they are. The needs for feeling valued, for security in groups, and for mastery, for instance, could all be shown to depend upon some satisfaction of the need for predictability. How much mastery could one feel in a truly unpredictable situation? Without some feeling of control, of some boundaries which limit the field of possible actions, a person would at the least experience discomfort and, in more significant situations, panic. Self-esteem and a stable view of oneself are, in turn, based on social interactions requiring membership in collectivities.

For a different emphasis on the relative importance of these needs, the teacher could point out how vital is some feeling of mastery in the shaping of one's self-concept as a person of competence; of how vital is interaction with various collectivities to the proper development of an infant.

E. (For Obj. G)* A social interaction game aimed at showing how we react to frustration of these five needs in social interactions.[3]

Use masking tape to apply three labels to the foreheads of three class volunteers. One member will wear a label which says, "Respond inconsistently to me"; one member a label which says, "Ignore what I say"; and one member "Tell me I'm wrong." Conceal each label from the person on whose forehead it is placed. Each member of the group must be able to read the others' labels without knowing what is on his own label. A discussion topic for the group should be chosen. (A topic from this module might serve to focus interest on the discussion.) If necessary to further stimulate discussion in the group, the members may be told that they have to reach a unanimous decision on the issue. Group members may need to be reminded to react to the others in the group only in terms of the labels. Nongroup members may be assigned as observers, one observer (or more) monitoring and recording his impressions of each of the group members.

Discussion follow-up should take the form of an exchange between group members and observers with regard to the group participants' reactions: Insofar as the discussants were able to get truly involved in the discussion, which needs were frustrated and what were the reactions to that?

F. (For Obj. F) The following situation may be role-played by the students: the student is attempting to show competence in choice of his own vocational career by electing to forego college. This is in opposition to his parents' wishes. The alter-ego role may be employed for each of the characters to provide additional information concerning the unspoken thought. (The character representing the alter-ego speaks and acts the nonverbal communication of the character he represents.) After the episode has been enacted, each student will switch roles and the same situation will be replayed. Discussion should center on which needs were illustrated on the part of each character and how these needs interacted within each character and between characters.

V. NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

1. With regard to each of the needs cited in the central principle, the student will be able to give one example of a situation in which an individual's behavior is too rigidly and too directly controlled by the need. (Kalish, Chapter 2, Hilgard, et al, pp. 297-300)

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*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.

[3] Adapted from "The Masking Tape Game" in the experimental unit on Blacks, Race, and Identity in America, by Richard A. Kasschau, Ph.D., Department of Psychology, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina 29208.

2. With regard to any one of the needs, the student will be able to give an example of behavior so rigidly and completely controlled by the need as to be considered abnormal. (Kalish, Chapter 2; Hilgard, et al, p. 304)

B. Activities

1. (For Obj. A) The activities in the earlier portion of the module should be sufficient for this objective because it simply emphasizes the maladaptive in everyday behavior with regard to these needs.

2. (For Obj. B) Specific examples of abnormal behavior could provide a basis for activity related to this objective. Examples can be taken from newspaper reports of current bizarre events (particularly trial testimony, psychiatric evaluations of defendants, etc.); case histories and interviews (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 506-514 and pp. 524-539); tapes of interviews with patients (The Disorganized Personality by Kisker); etc. In each instance the students could be asked to consider what motives were at work in determining the aberrant behavior, what motives were ascribed by neighbors and relatives of the individual in question, by lawyers, by psychiatrists, and what relation these motives have to the five motives considered in this module.

VI. EVALUATION ITEMS

A. (For Obj. A) In a few short sentences, explain the difference between the terms drive and need.

B. (For Obj. C) Choosing one of the following, explain (1) how the behavior reflects the need for constancy and (2) how the behavior might help an individual to cope with everyday experience:

1. Walking or driving along the same route each morning on the way to school

2. Going through the same pattern of activities in preparation for school each morning, e.g., eating breakfast, washing, dressing, etc. in the same order

3. Going to the same vacation spot each summer

4. Going to the same drive-in after every football game

5. When living away from home for the first time, arranging one's furniture in a pattern similar to that in one's room at home

6. Sitting in the same seat in class each day

C. (For Obj. C) From past experience, state three examples of your own behavior which illustrate the need for constancy. At least one of these examples must be from the physical realm and one from the social realm.

D. (For Obj. D) Damian, a high school sophomore, seemed to be a loner. In school, he rarely spoke to anyone unless he was spoken to first. He seldom joined his classmates in social or athletic activities during after-school hours, and he reported to his guidance counselor that there was noone whom he considered a true friend. He added that he enjoyed spending time alone. While most of his contemporaries were quite excited about rock music, Damian preferred listening to classical composers and had a particular enthusiasm for opera. He occasionally attended concerts at the Kennedy Center and found himself caught up in the excitement of the music and applauded furiously along with the rest of the audience at the end of each performance. The only individuals outside his family with whom Damian had routine, voluntary contact were his piano and voice teachers.

In a paragraph or two, argue for one of the following propositions:

1. Damian is a true exception to the need for membership in collectivities.

2. Damian is only an apparent exception to this need and his behavior demonstrates that the need is still present but appears in disguised form.

MOTIVATION - PREJUDICE

Module 2-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPES

A. Emotions pervade and color all thinking. Strong negative feelings (fear, anger, feelings of inadequacy) and positive feelings (love, pride) frequently contribute to prejudice. (Wertheimer, et al, p. 148)

B. Whenever anyone invests a lot of energy in a task or judgment, he is likely to become committed to the result. Commitment is that which sustains endeavor and yet may include a resistance or reluctance to consider evidence which may cast doubt on the result of one's efforts. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 513, 533; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 621; Wertheimer, et al, p. 148)

II. KEY TERMS

Commitment

Motivation

Need

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to give examples of situations in which an individual may adequately control his intellectual expression but not be able to adequately control his emotional expression. This idea is illustrated in the movie, Guess Who's Coming To Dinner.

B. The student will be able to explain how a person who feels insecure about his own competence may find reasurrance in degrading others.

C. The student will recognize that fear and anger are similar physiologically and difficult for the observer to differentiate without contextual cues. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 336-339; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 60)

D. The student will be able to show with examples how fear may lead to anger and retaliation. This has been illustrated by an overreaction of hostility from the citizens toward all college students due to fear of campus militancy.

E. The student will be able to define and illustrate commitment.

F. The student will be able to illustrate the relationship between the amount of investment made in terms of time and energy and the degree of commitment obtained.

G. The student will be able to cite the pros and cons of commitment: that commitment is essential to achievement and yet, once made, limits one's openness to contrasting positions. Example: a strong political affiliation in one direction is likely to preclude a positive regard for political affiliations in other directions.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) To show how emotional stress may interfere with logical problem-solving, make the statement: "Once you've raised your voice, you've lost the argument." Ask the students to explain the implication of that statement. Ask them also for related personal experiences. (Krech, et al, pp. 426-428)

B. (For Obj. B) Discuss: Is an individual in the lowest-status job in the community likely to be predisposed to prejudice? More so than an individual who has a high-status position? The students may need to be reminded that feelings of inadequacy may not accurately reflect reality.

C. (For Obj. C) Ask the students to describe what their body reactions are when they are afraid and angry, and consider the basic similarities involved in the two emotions. The teacher might also wish to present here a more thorough explanation of the physiological components of anger and fear (see Hilgard, et al, pp. 336-339; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 60, 221-222), pointing out that the arousal mechanisms in both are familar.

D. (For Obj. D) Present the students with several examples of fear-producing situations and ask the students to consider possible responses, including responses of anger and hostility. Such examples are:

1. Townspeople's responses to the report that thousands of college students, including members of militant groups, will be arriving in their college town to protest the allegedly unfair proceedings of a trial which is receiving nation-wide coverage.
2. A child luridly describes her tonsillectomy experience to her brother just before he is to enter the hospital for a similar operation.
3. People in a neighborhood discover that a house on their block has been sold to a member of a lower socio-economic class and a different ethnic background than theirs.
4. After viewing a film which dramatically portrays the communist menance to this country, and reading much literature on the subject, a person discovers that a co-worker is a member of the Communist Party.

The teacher might wish instead to present various historical events (e.g., McCarthy era, reactions to Germans during WWI and Japanese after Pearl Harbor) which illustrate hostile and aggressive responses in fear-inducing situations. The teacher could then ask the students to consider the relation between anger and fear as seen in the responses of the people involved in these events.

E. (For Objs. E and G) Discuss the pros and cons of commitment making. This may best be done using their own commitments as examples.

Consider: going steady, career goals, athletics. Implicit in this discussion is the notion that the restrictions involved in commitment are likely to create distance from alternatives, and the greater the commitment, the greater the distance. As distance increases, there is greater opportunity for prejudicial attitudes.

F. (For Obj. F) Ask the students to explain why harsh hazing is practiced by groups upon new members. (e.g., the more the new member goes through to become a part of the group, the stronger his commitment to the group and the less empathy for out-groups. (Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 477, 478)

G. (For Obj. G) As an illustration of maladaptive commitment, ask the students to consider the case of the scientist who has devoted much of his life to developing a theory, only to become increasingly aware that contradicting evidence is mounting. How might he react in terms of his scientific objectivity? Why might he be inclined to cling to the theoretical framework he has developed, even if he realizes that his reasoning is in error?

Ask the students to discuss from their own experience examples of strong commitment which may lead to maladaptive behavior. Such examples might be:

1. Spending years practicing a musical instrument to attain professional competence despite the evidence that basic professional skill is not forthcoming, or

2. Pursuing an activity which is no longer satisfying or appropriate to future goals. How might these be reconciled?

Consider reconciliations of such contrasts between commitment and hoped for results, and how they may lead to prejudice. The teacher may wish to contrast types of commitment which are specific to the younger generation as opposed to the older and vice versa.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

1. The student will be able to list some of the things he feels committed to as existing on a quantitative continuum. The

intensity of commitment may vary from issue to issue. Hence, one may have strong commitments on some issues and weak commitments on others

2. The student will be able to suggest what emotions may underlie those strong commitments which he has in common with his classmates. (Here caution would dictate focusing any request for public statements on strong commitments and underlying emotions in such a manner that the teacher can deal with their commonality in the group, not their idiosyncrasies.)

3. The student will be able to give examples of what he regards as extreme commitment, state which of these he would regard as pathological, and state his reason(s) for so regarding them. (The idea of pathology will require class work and discussion. Is the individual's behavior pathological because it deviates so far from the norm, because the individual is unable to control it, because it is likely to result in physical harm to himself or others? How helpful is the analogy to medicine where pathology is defined as disease? Are value judgments involved in the psychological definition of pathology?) (See Hilgard, p. 466; pp. 498-499.)

B. Activities

(All Objectives) The teacher might cite some examples of commitment; see how the students distinguish among them and on what basis. Some examples:

1. The Kamikazi pilots in World War II

2. Youths who have gone to jail for deliberately refusing induction, recently or during other wars of this country

3. Members of associations convinced of the existence of flying saucers many of whom testify to the flights they have taken in flying saucers (The Aetherius Society,[4] The College of Universal Wisdom[4])

4. Members of the National Socialist Party of Arlington, Virginia (American Nazi Party)

5. People whose explanations of all political affairs are based on some "devil" theory, e.g., what's wrong with this country is the fault of the Democrats; or the Wall Street financiers; or the radicals; or a breakdown in traditional moral values; or the Communists, etc.

6. People who spend all of their spare time on: anti-pollution causes; on population control movement; on world government; on women's lib; etc.

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[4] Paris Flammode, The Age of Flying Saucers (New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1971).

7. Buddhist monks in Vietnam who immolated themselves to protest governmental action; American youths who have done the same thing.

The teacher could then move the discussion to the kinds of commitments common among the students. What are they? Preparation for college? Getting along with a group of peers? Working for students civil liberties? Further questions which may be asked about the nature of commitment: When is it reasonable? When pathological? Is there such a thing as "balanced" or "reasoned" commitment and how does an individual manage it? Do we all have commitments which go so deep that we are substantially unaware of them? How would one characterize these?

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) True or False - It is more difficult for a person to control his intellectual expression than his emotional expression.

B. (For Obj. B) In the sixth grade, Alex was the tallest boy in his class. At the beginning of the seventh grade, however, he finds that many of his friends are at least as tall as he is, and many are a good deal taller. In addition, Alex's grades average to a C during the first semester. Alex begins to pick on Seth, his friend since second grade, who is now taller than Alex and has an A average. He refuses to be seen with Seth and remarks to his other friends that Seth is a "baby," that he is uncoordinated, a "drip," etc. What is probably going on with Alex?

C. (For Obj. C) True or False - It is difficult for an outside observer to determine, without contextual cues, whether a person is experiencing fear or anger because the observable physiological signs for each emotion are so similar.

D. (For Obj. C) What emotion is indicated by the following behaviors: sweating, nausea, irrationality, rapidly palpitating heart?

1. Fear

2. Anger

3. Pleasure

4. Cannot tell on the basis of this information alone

E. (For Obj. D) According to established psychological principle, if a sniper situated in a building began firing randomly at passersby, most people would feel:

1. Fear, followed by anger and a desire to retaliate

2. Some fear, but mostly curiosity

3. Fear, followed by embarrassment at their first reaction

4. Mild annoyance that normal routine had been disrupted

F. (For Obj. E) Define "commitment." List three things to which you are committed.

G. (For Obj. F) Three students are working on different student council committees planning different events.

1. Jack has been working for three months to organize a faculty-student basketball game. He has talked to 10 faculty members, 15 students, and he plans to play in the game himself.
2. Marsha has just been appointed to the committee to plan what the senior class gift will be. She has contributed $10 toward the gift and has several ideas about what it should be.
3. Ellen has been working steadily for six months to design the cover for this year's yearbook. She has talked with several friends about her ideas and after careful consideration of more than twenty ideas, she has selected two which she is currently pursuing.

If all of these projects are threatened by budget cuts, which student, all other things being equal, is likely to work hardest to have his/her project carried through? Least likely? Defend your choices, discussing what factors lead to commitment.

H. (For Obj. G) Alice frequently discusses political issues with her parents, who are Republicans. When she turns 18, Alice registers as a Democrat. In subsequent political discussions with her parents, will Alice be more open or less open to their point of view? Why?

Module 2-E

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

While it is possible to get general agreement on common elements involved in brainwashing situations, it is difficult to arrive at an exact definition of brainwashing. Essentially, this is due to the problem of fully specifying what it means to have control over another's behavior.

II. KEY TERMS

Attitude
Brainwashing
Cognitive Dissonance
Control
Motivation
Value

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to describe two difficulties involved in defining the term "brainwashing."

B. The student will be able to describe some elements involved in a generally agreed-upon brainwashing situation. In addition, he will be able to illustrate how these elements might affect an individual's motivation. (See Schein's "Brainwashing - Social Psychological Factors" on American POW's in the Korean War, in McKinney, pp. 324-334)

C. Choosing any two of the following examples, the student will be able to argue for or against the proposition that each represents a situation conducive to brainwashing:

1. A prisoner in a POW camp
2. An inmate of domestic penitentiary who is in a rehabilitation program
3. An ex-drug addict in a halfway house such as Daytop or Synanon
4. A child-rearing situation
5. A marine recruit in boot camp
6. A political campaign
7. A classroom

8. Motivational research advertising

9. A new employee in a large organization

D. The student will be able to give examples which illustrate that appropriate use of the term brainwashing requires consideration of two interrelated but distinct points of view. One is external and situational and has to do with the degree of control which the situation permits the individual to have over his own behavior. The other is internal and intrapsychic and has to do with the degree to which critical thinking is involved in any change of attitudes and values which takes place in the presumed brainwashing situation.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Have the students read Schein, "Brainwashing - Social Psychological Factors" in McKinney, pp. 324-334, or listen to the tape "Disintegration of Personality in POW's (in Korea)"* up to the discussion on the U.S. code of conduct. Based upon the article or tape, have the students list those elements they believe to be involved in this brainwashing situation. These elements include:

1. The deliberate attempt to develop in the individual a feeling of isolation and mistrust towards other members of his group, followed by
2. The substitution of a new group identity for the group identity which had been destroyed
3. The development of dependency upon the person(s) in charge
4. The attempt to control the person's life to as great a degree as possible
5. The utilization of rewards, threats, and sometimes punishment
6. Sometimes the use of physical coercion, debilitation, constant discomfort, and fear followed by relief from them.

It should be noted that while these elements are present in the POW situation described in the article on tape, they are not necessarily essential in all situations involving brainwashing. The object here is to describe some of the elements in an agreed-upon brainwashing situation as a basis for student consideration of other situations that they might initially characterize as brainwashing. The students should question whether these situations are indeed examples of brainwashing and, if so, what the crucial elements are that make them so. (See Activity B.)

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*Copies available through the coordinator of Division of New Projects, Department of Curriculum and Instruction.

The methods in the POW situation are designed to influence a person so that his attitudes, values, and behavior will conform to that desired by his captors. These techniques take advantage of certain needs commonly attributed to the individual. (See Module B-2. Identity-Motivation, and Kalish, pp. 20-39.) A discussion could be held in which the students explore how the techniques they read or heard about affect an individual's motivation to change his attitudes and values.

One basic motive which is relevant to the POW situation is the individual's need to maintain a relatively stable view of himself (i.e., maintain consistency of values and attitudes). In the POW situation, the environment was so controlled that information available to the prisoners and the behavior expected of them was totally consistent with the attitudes desired by their captors. For example, the prisoners were induced to discuss attitudes about communism and the United States as well as write letters, give testimonials, etc., contrary to their original beliefs. These behaviors, which were inconsistent with their attitudes, created a certain amount of cognitive dissonance within the individual, and hence, a motivation to reduce the dissonance and maintain consistency. (See McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 616-617; Hilgard, pp. 329, 529; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 551-552; 615-616.) For those individuals who were susceptible to manipulation, an attitude change in the direction desired by the prisoners' captors would occur, as McKeachie and Doyle state (p. 617): "(1) if there is no other simple means for the subject to reduce the dissonance created by the contradictory beliefs and acts; (2) if the expression of the new attitude is unexpectedly rewarding; and (3) if, in the process of formulating arguments for the expression of the new attitude, the subject feels that he is using his own ideas."

It might be noted that specific behaviors which contributed to the individual's cognitive dissonance also were performed in order to satisfy certain needs. Performance of "appropriate" behavior was rewarded: the prisoner was approved, which helped to satisfy his need to feel himself a valued individual; and he also could feel himself a member of a group, acceptable to his captors, whose members were also behaving as he did. Most important perhaps, performance of such behavior meant that the prisoner could gain a feeling of safety and security within an otherwise fearful atmosphere.

B. (For Obj. C) With specific regard to (1) the degree of control an individual has over his own behavior, and (2) the degree to which critical thinking is involved in the formation and change of attitudes and values, consider the following situations in terms of how well each represents an instance of brainwashing:

1. An inmate of a domestic penitentiary who is in a rehabilitation program. Is attitude- and value-change involved in a successful rehabilitation effort? If so, how does this compare, in terms of brainwashing, to the experience of American POW's in Korea?

2. An ex-drug addict in a halfway house, such as Daytop or Synanon. Is attitude- and value-change involved in curing drug addiction? How does this compare to both the POW and the prisoner in a domestic penitentiary? Of what relevance is the voluntary nature of some drug treatment programs in terms of the extent to which they may be appropriately labelled "brainwashing?"

3. A child-rearing situation. Consider the sources of attitude- and value-formation in a child. Whereas the POW's were bombarded exclusively with values held by the Chinese, the average child in the course of growing up is exposed to a variety of attitudes and values from many different sources (e.g., parents, teachers, clergymen, other children, and their parents).

   How does this diffused control over a child's behavior compare with the focused control that was brought to bear on the POW's? How does such control vary with the age of the child? Is it different in infancy than in adolescence? Finally, what effect do these differences make in terms of whether or not we call child-rearing a form of brainwashing?

4. A Marine recruit in boot camp. Is attitude and value change involved in military training? If so, is it a form of brainwashing? How does it differ from the POW's with respect to the voluntary nature of initially entering the experience?

5. A political campaign. How do candidates manipulate the attitudes and values of voters in an election (i.e., by making a highly selective presentation of a candidate's character, competence, etc. in order to create a favorable public image - see Joe McGinnis' The Selling of the President, 1968)? Is it correct to say that an individual is brainwashed by contemporary American political campaigns (in the same sense that the POWs were said to have been brainwashed by their captors)? Or do we apply the term inappropriately and thereby render it meaningless? Is the process by which attitudes and values undergo change the same in both cases?

6. A classroom. What role does the school play in the development of attitudes and values in students? With respect to brainwashing, how does the classroom situation compare with the POW camp in terms of:

   a) The number of hours spent under the supervision of authority

   b) The amount of control exercised by authority (e.g., the degree and kinds of rewards and punishment used)

   c) The degree to which the individual may criticize the work for change within the situation in which he is located

   d) The degree to which critical thinking is an aim

In terms of the two variables mentioned at the beginning of this activity, how well do the following types of classroom setups represent instances of brainwashing:

a) A typical classroom in the public schools

b) A token economy classroom

c) A Summerhill classroom (see Summerhill by A. S. Neill)

7. Advertising which employs motivational research in order to promote sales. In what sense are the attitudes and values of consumers subject to the control of advertising firms? What are the similarities and differences between this and the control exercised in the Korean POW camps? Between motivational research advertising and a political campaign?

C. (For Obj. D) After listening to the tape concerning the POW camp, have the students consider the following case study:

> Corporal Smith spent several years in a Chinese POW camp in Korea. When he returned to the United States, he expressed a positive regard for the Chinese system of government and social organization. A friend asked him to explain this view. He later reported that Smith's response was not a mere repetition of communist jargon. On the contrary, he appeared to be intimately familiar with both the Chinese and American political systems. When asked about the source of this knowledge, Smith reported that he had gained it through extensive reading and thinking which he carried out during his period of captivity. He said that the Chinese had made available to him an abundant supply of books on economics, sociology, history, and political science. Smith also reported that in the course of his reading he had tried to poke holes in the Chinese system. Although he discovered some important disadvantages in it, he felt that it had weathered his attacks better than did the American system under similar scrutiny. He proceeded to list what he saw as three main advantages of the Chinese system and added later that he didn't feel that Americans are always right.

Was Smith a victim of brainwashing? Ask the students what they think the narrator of the tape would say in response to this question. What criteria would the narrator use in making this judgment? Do they agree that these are appropriate standards? Do they think that the narrator might himself be somewhat brainwashed with a different set of values? Have them consider, in particular, the extent to which Smith exercised critical thinking in formulating his attitude concerning the Chinese system. What effect does this have in terms of whether or not it is appropriate to say he was brainwashed? Is it necessary then, even in a situation clearly conducive to brainwashing, to make a separate judgment about any given individual in that situation as to whether his particular change in attitudes and values represents brainwashing?

D. (For Obj. D) From the above activities, the students should have begun to identify those elements which they believe are essential in brainwashing. Two such elements might be: (1) the degree of control the individual has over his own behavior (the likelihood that the situation would involve brainwashing would increase as the environment and options available to the individual become more highly controlled), and (2) the degree to which critical thinking is involved in the formation and change of attitudes and values (the more the situation tolerates and encourages critical thinking, the less we would want to label it as brainwashing). The teacher might wish to have the class construct a continuum for each of the above elements and place the examples cited above along the continuum (or a graph could be used which would combine both elements). The students could then discuss at what point they would say a situation was brainwashing in terms of these two elements. Also, other elements they might feel are essential to brainwashing should be discussed. The students should be able to reach a conclusion as to which elements are essential if a situation is to be labeled brainwashing.

UNIT III - LEARNING

(Includes Modules 3-B, 3-C, 3-D, and 3-E)

LEARNING - IDENTITY

Module 3-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

One's self-concept can be viewed as substantially a product of learning, which may continue to change and develop throughout life as a result of new experiences.

II. KEY TERMS

Aptitude	Motive
Identification	Reinforcement
Identity	Self-Concept
Learning	Trait
Modeling	Value

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. Any aspect which is characteristic of an individual can be included in his self-concept. The student will know that among these aspects are:

physical characteristics

traits

reference groups

aptitudes

skills

values and goals (including attitudes, dispositions, etc.)

interests and motives (including likes, preferences, etc.)

(Hilgard, et al, pp. 416-418; Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 172-176)

B. The student will be able to give examples of how specific characteristics belonging in the above groups (i.e., specific values like thrift or neatness, specific interests like sports or stamp collecting) may be learned.

C. With regard to a list of specific characteristics, e.g., self-confidence or the lack of it; gregariousness; honesty; masculinity; femininity; love of art, dancing, hotrodding, etc., the student will be able to discuss settings in which they are commonly learned, and the way in which some settings seem to impose the learning on the individual while other settings seem to reflect the individual's freedom to choose whether to acquire the learning or not. (Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 491-492).

D. The student will be able to discuss the following question: Does emphasis on the importance of learning in the development of the self-concept negate the importance in development of factors over which the individual has little or no control, e.g., personal physical characteristics and physical surroundings? (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 460-475; Hilgard, et al, pp. 76-77)

E. The student should be able to discuss the development of the self-concept as the product of different kinds of learning, namely: (1) reinforcement (conditioning theory); (2) identification (psychoanalytic theory); (3) modeling (social learning theory). (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 476-503)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) This exercise serves to get the students thinking about the many and varied attributes which make up the self and about how these are categorized. Perhaps the easiest way to begin is to ask each student to list at least eight characteristics which he thinks identify him. Let the students know that their lists are to be anonymous, but ask them to indicate sex by placing an M or F in one corner of their papers. While the students are writing, the teacher can put across the blackboard as column headings the kinds or categories of personal characteristics given in Objective A: physical characteristics, traits, aptitudes, skills, values and goals, and interests and motives. The teacher can then collect the papers and, being careful to choose selectively so as to protect anonymity, call out characteristics one at a time and ask under which heading each might best be placed. The teacher should share with the class the difficulties of doing this, noting overlap between categories and the ambiguity of the terms we commonly use to express personal characteristics, e.g., "athletic" may refer to an individual's physical characteristics, may be seen as a trait (a dimension of personality reflecting a relatively enduring cluster of behaviors), an aptitude (capacity to learn), or a set of skills. Conflicts in categorizing should be resolved by reference to definitions of each category - with terms like "athletics," "musical," etc. - by noting the ambiguities and making up some arbitrary (there is no "right" way) rules for consistent placement. The point of the exercise is to become familiar with the categories of individual characteristics and, beyond this, for the student to see how much in the way of number and variety or specific characteristics goes into making up the self-concept.

In place of or as a supplement to the students' unstructured listing of personal characteristics, the teacher may wish to select one or more of a number of questionnaires which may safely be administered to the students to evoke thinking about the self-concept. Questionnaires should be selected and used so as not to intrude on the private realm in students' lives. The object, rather, is to bring out characteristics which while personal in the sense of relating to the indivdual and his self-concept are frequently encountered and publicly acknowledged. To elicit discussion of values, the teacher may wish to use the Allport-Vernon test of values.[5] The whole test and profile for scoring oneself on it are included on pages 252-4 of the student workbook for Psychology, A Scientific Study of Man, by Sanford and Wrightsman.

B. (For Objs. B and C) Here are some more specific questions which may help to focus discussion on the larger one, "How do we come to have these characteristics?"

Is the acquisition or learning likely to be different for different kinds of characteristics, i.e., likely to be different for a skill like diving than for a value like honesty in business dealings? As we learn these characteristics, in what settings and of what kinds of characteristics are we likely to be aware of the learning at the time? How does age at the time of learning (or at the time the learning begins) enter into this awareness and feeling of choice?

In which setting is a person likely to feel more or less choice with regard to the acquisition of characteristics of the self: family, peer group, public school, college, work situation, etc? Is age and type of characteristic more important to a feeling of choice (or the lack of it) than is the social setting? The teacher may wish to refer here to Activity A, grouping the characteristics given by several boys and separately several girls in the class, then asking with regard to differences which are noted, how much awareness and choice were involved in these learnings of sex role. Does society through institutions like the family and the school begin "teaching" some learnings about self very early and forcefully? How much of this learning about self are we likely to be aware of at the time?

C. (For Obj. D) The teacher might arrange a short debate of the proposition "There is less learning of self-concept in relation to one's physical characteristics than in relation to one's interests and values because one has little or no control over the former." The debate and ensuing discussion may be used to bring out two points (beyond the point that this is a difficult proposition to resolve): (1) asserting that we have great control over our values and interests has its difficulties when one considers how early and how basically some of these learnings become part of the self-concept; (2) asserting that one has no control over his physical characteristics and thus simply discovers them, rather than making them a part of his self-concept through extensive learning, is a proposition which has its difficulties, too. One incorporates into his self-concept a view of himself as being of a certain height, weight, strength, etc., but people of identical height, for example, may vary widely in their degree of interest in and the value they place upon being of that particular height. One tall (or short) person may be

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5. Gordon W. Allport, Philip E. Vernon, and Gardner Lindzey, A Study of Values (3rd ed.), (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961).

self-conscious about his height, another substantially unconcerned about it; one may view it negatively, another positively. Thus, as far as self-concept formation goes, there is much learning even with regard to physical characteristics.

D. (For Obj. E) A student or group of students may undertake independent reading about reinforcement, identification, and modeling. This could be limited to the reading required to arrive at definitions of the distinctions between the three followed by consideration of which appear to best fit certain self-concept acquisitions, e.g., learning within the family to act like a little boy rather than a girl; the daughter of a professional singer learning to see herself as musical; viewing oneself as punctual at school or work; seeing oneself as unlucky in contests, raffles, etc. Which kind (or view) or learning seems to best fit which situation?

For those students wishing to go further, there is opportunity to more fully understand each of the kinds of learning by reading something of the different theories in which each is embedded. There are summaries of each theory in each of the approved teacher texts for the course. The concept of reinforcement because it stems from a theory of learning is the most fully covered of the three in these texts. Identification is most closely related to psychoanalytic theory and the writing of Erik Erikson (Childhood and Society, Identity: Youth and Crisis).

For reading about modeling and social learning theory, the student can be referred to the work of Albert Bandura ("Social Learning Through Imitation,"[6] and the Bandura article in Pronko, pp. 280-287).

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[6] In M. R. Jones, (ed.), Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1962), pp. 211-269.

LEARNING - PREJUDICE

Module 3-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Reinforcement and generalization are key explanatory principles in learning theory and have direct application in everyday life. (Kalish, p. 63)

II. KEY TERMS

Conditioning, Classical

Conditioning, Operant

Generalization

Learning

Phobia

Reinforcement

Reinforcement, Secondary

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. With regard to reinforcement

1. The student will be able to define reinforcement and give examples from everyday life which illustrate his definition.

2. The student will be able to explain that in everyday life we are generally dealing with secondary rather than primary reinforcement. Similarly, he will be able to explain how influences serving to confirm prejudice, such as those influences noted in Modules 1-C, 5-C, 6-C, and 7-C are examples of secondary reinforcement. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 200-201; Kagan and Havemann, pp. 72-73; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 351-352)

B. With regard to generalization

1. The student will be able to define generalization and will be able to give commonplace examples which illustrate his definition. Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 50-59; Kagan and Havemann, pp. 53-54, 59; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 335-364; Hilgard, et al, pp. 188-207).

2. The student will learn one well-known experiment relating reinforcement to generalization and be able to illustrate this relationship when given examples of prejudiced behavior. (Cox, pp. 197-198; Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 50-59; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 96-113)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Ask the students to name situations or stimuli to which they have learned conditioned responses. (Examples: response to one's own name; stopping in traffic at a red light; changing classes at the school bell; saying "Fine, thank you. How are you?" or any variant of this in response to a greeting; moving in the school corridors so as not to bump into other students; starting to read when the eye falls on a printed page.) Then, after the students have been introduced to one or more definition(s) of reinforcement, ask them to consider what might be the reinforcements in the development of these various behaviors. Some of the answers should have to do with the avoidance of punishment or danger (stopping at a red light; not bumping into others; washing hands when they are dirty; etc.). But some of the answers should lead to the notion that often the reinforcement is a feeling of satisfaction or avoidance of guilt in accordance with an internalized norm which was once externally reinforced (i.e., secondary reinforcement viewed developmentally).

This latter idea of reinforcement can be used to lead the discussion toward consideration of the comparative amounts of primary and secondary reinforcement in everyday life, and to speculation about the sources of this secondary reinforcement. What earlier learnings is it based on? To stimulate discussion consider:

1. The miser who would not spend his money even if hungry (i.e., that the money becomes autonomous in reward value - it may come to need no link to a primary reinforcer)

2. The student who takes a course because it is required, then becomes interested in pursuing further study in that area

3. Or have the students consider the following excerpt from a convocation address at the University of Chicago:[7]

> "Surely it is the road traveled and not any particular destination that justifies liberal education. Surely what we mean by the free play of the mind is a play of the mind without some secret pay-off in the future. Surely the ultimate justification of a university education is not something that could be destroyed if the student's life ended on the day of graduation. Ask yourself whether you would consider yourself cheated if some sort of flaming disaster struck Rockefeller Chapel and took all of us to the kind of unexpected death that may, in fact, meet some of us during the next year, because you had spent your last years struggling for an education. I suspect that some of you _would_ feel cheated, but _if_ you would, if you do not feel any sense that these recent years have been in some degree self-justifying, I feel sorry for you."

The students may want to discuss this passage in terms of "living for the moment," existentialism, etc. Ask them to consider it as a statement about secondary reinforcement. What might be some of the previous learnings required upon which to make education - college or high school - reinforcing of itself? (Cox, pp. 197-198; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 96-113)

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[7] Wayne C. Booth. "Mr. Gradgrind, 1965," _The University of Chicago Magazine_ 57:1 (May, 1965): 4-7.

4. The hospital patient whose pain diminishes at the approach of the nurse (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 233-234).

B. (For Obj. B) Present to the students an experiment relating reinforcement to generalization (Hilgard, et al, pp. 194-195; Krech, et al, pp. 291-292, 301; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 116-120; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 343-345, 348). Have the students describe how the generalization was learned and reinforced.

Ask the students to name various situations in which their response was based upon a generalization. Examples are: their behavior when entering a class (or any new situation) for the first time; determination of what to wear based on current weather conditions; categorizing objects or people into groups. Discuss with the students how reinforcement is related to the generalization developed in each example. For example, a person who was positively reinforced for behavior in a given situation might decide to act in the same way in a similar situation. The teacher might then have the students consider examples of prejudiced behavior, examining the generalization involved in each example and how it relates to reinforcement.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to explain using examples that responses based on inaccurate generalizations may be maladaptive, as in the case of a phobia.

B. Activities

1. From their own experiences, ask the students to relate commonly-encountered situations in which their responses or expectations did not seem justified; such feelings may be positive or negative (Hilgard, et al, p. 470; Engle and Snellgrove, p. 180; Krech, et al, p. 294). Example: instant like or dislike of a person upon meeting him/her for the first time. The students may be able to explain some of these responses as generalizations. Discuss with the students how their responses in such situations may be disadvantageous, recognizing, of course, that they need not invariably be so.

2. Describe the Little Albert experiment (Hilgard, et al, p. 344) to the students and ask them to explain what happened in terms of classical conditioning and generalization. The teacher might also wish to have the students give examples of other phobias, and discuss with them how responses to such phobias may be maladaptive if the responses (and the anxiety about the phobia) come to occupy an increasingly large portion of the individual's attention and interfere with the achievement of his plans for a worthwhile goal (McKeachie and Doyle, p. 509; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 247, 578-579).

3. Have the students suggest ways in which phobias might be extinguished (e.g., through counter-conditioning, responses can be weakened or eliminated by strengthening incompatible or antagonistic responses such as learning to relax in the presence of a feared object). (Hilgard, et al, pp. 495-497)

Note to teacher: The teacher might wish to point out to the students that not all responses based on inaccurate generalizations are maladaptive. (See Module 4-C, Thinking - Prejudice, Activity B.)

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. 1-A) Define reinforcement. Think of an activity in which you participate in school (working in the classroom, playing football, singing in the chorale, etc.) and describe three ways in which you are reinforced for taking part in this activity.

B. (For Obj. 2-A) How does secondary reinforcement differ from primary reinforcement?

C. (For Obj. 2-A) Place a P or an S next to each activity according to whether the reinforcing situation for the activity is primary or secondary:

1. Learning to recite a poem
2. Drinking a glass of water
3. Fleeing from a bear
4. Studying for an examination
5. Working as a gas station attendant
6. Coming up for air after swimming 50 feet under water

D. (For Obj. 1-B) A one-year-old child calls his father "Daddy." In subsequent encounters with the milkman, the television repairman, and the grocery clerk, the child addresses each of these men as "Daddy." This is an example of (generalization).

Later, the response "Daddy" is reinforced by the parents (with coddling, expressions of pleasure, etc.) only when it is applied to the father. When the child addresses other persons as "Daddy," the response is not reinforced. Soon the child learns to apply the term only to his father. This is an illustration of (differentiation).

E. (Activity B2 under NORMAL - ABNORMAL)

Describe the process of desensitization of a phobia.

LEARNING - CONTROL

Module 3-D

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Both environmental and intrapsychic (dynamic) factors influence learning. To the extent that an individual is aware of these factors, he may be able to control them to influence his own learning.

II. KEY terms

Extrinsic and Intrinsic Rewards

Feedback

Massed and Distributed Practice

Transfer

Whole and Part Learning

III. INSTRUCTIONAL

A. The student will be able to give examples of how the environmental context can affect the learning of material and will recognize that the optimal learning environment varies from one individual to another.

B. The student will be able to illustrate how the advantages and disadvantages of each of two methods of learning (among those referred to in this module) are related to the nature and complexity of the material to be learned. (Hilgard, pp. 261-263; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 369-371; Krech, pp. 337-341; Kalish, pp. 71-73; Kagan readings, pp. 74-80)

C. The student will be able to illustrate the effects of positive and negative transfer on learning new material. (Hilgard, pp. 255-261; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 379-382; Krech, pp. 321-325; Kalish, p. 73)

D. The student will be able to give examples illustrating the importance of the meaningfulness of the material for the learner. (Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 371-372; Krech, pp. 316-321)

E. The student will be able to explain how the individual's motivation and involvement influence his success in learning material. (Krech, p. 32; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 372-374; Kalish, pp. 73-74)

F. With respect to Instructional Objective E, the student will be able to give examples of how an individual's motivation is affected by direct environmental influences (e.g., punishment) and dynamic factors (e.g., need for achievement). He will also be able to give examples illustrating how such factors are interrelated and how the potentially positive effect of one may be negated by the effect of another. For example, while competition may facilitate performance, it may also increase anxiety and thereby inhibit performance. (Hilgard, pp. 263-269; Krech, pp. 342-346; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 374-379)

G. The student will recognize that in terms of his own learning style he can influence some of the environmental and dynamic factors involved in learning to increase his learning effectiveness. To this end he will be able to describe (1) the environmental learning situation that he finds most often effective for him and (2) what he can do to increase the effectiveness of dynamic factors as they influence his learning. (See Activity H.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A)

1. The influence of background noise in studying can be illustrated by the following experiment (See CRM, Involvement in Psychology Today, pp. 62-67.) Divide the class into three groups: group A will read a given selection in a quiet room; group B will read with soft (semi-classical) music playing; and group C will read with rock music playing. (This arrangement will admittedly create the problem of smallness of sample which may be overcome by conducting the experiment in several classes and combining group results from the different classes.) Each group will read the same selection and when the allotted time is up take a short test evaluating the students' reading comprehension. Compare each group's mean scores. Discuss which situation seems best for the greatest comprehension in general. The students should recognize that some people can study effectively in only one situation, and the presence of other people in the room might be distracting. (The teacher might decide instead to have the entire class participate in all three reading situations, using three different but comparable selections. If this is the approach decided upon, short rest periods must be provided between the reading environments.)

2. A short, out-of-class activity illustrating the effect of time of day on learning could be developed in which the students are asked to learn ten nonsense syllables in their correct order, recording the number of errors made in each succeeding trial to perfection. Half the class (group A) would learn the syllables just before going to bed and the other half (group B) shortly after they get up in the morning. The members of group A would then relearn the material 24 hours later, recording the number of errors to perfection. Group B's members would do the same the morning following the initial learning and relearning (savings score), and reach a conclusion as to the influence the time of day may have on learning effectiveness. The teacher might note here the multiplicity of factors which influence the effect of time of day on learning: some people function better in the morning than in the evening (day vs. night people); the person's mind may be cluttered with material which interferes with the learning task at hand; the person may be tired at the end of a busy day, whose events may also interfere with successful learning.

3. Discuss with the students when and under what conditions they seem to do their best studying. Students should become aware that different people study and learn most effectively at different times of day and in different situations, e.g., alone, with friends, in absolute quiet, or with some kind of background noise. The students should be encouraged to determine what their optimal study situation is. (See also Objective G.)

B. (For Obj. B)

1. For an experiment illustrating the effect of whole vs. part learning, divide the class into two groups. Present each member with the same poem. Group A will learn the poem by the whole method, Group B by parts. Have each student record the time it took him to learn the poem to perfection, and compare results. Which students found it easier to learn the poem one way, which the other?

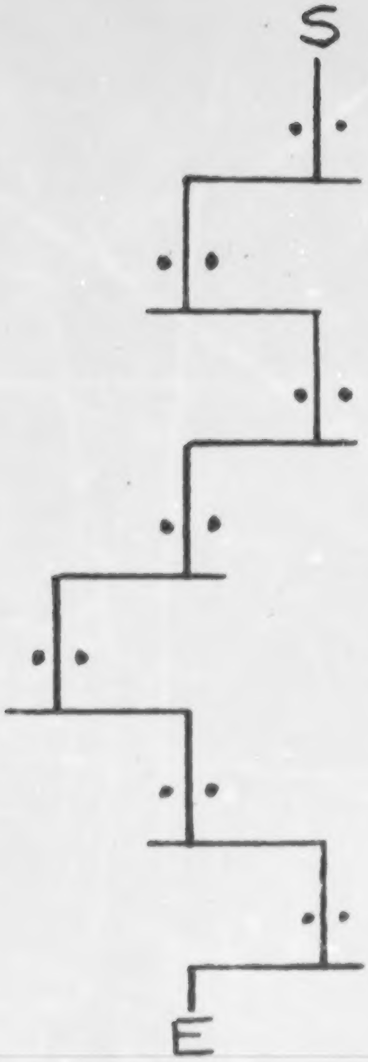
2. For two relevant experiments on massed vs. distributed practice, see Minahan and Costin's Experiments on a Shoestring, No. 58, p. 58 and Variation I of No. 50 pp. 48-49. For an experiment involving maze learning and massed vs. distributed practice, each student will need a copy of the maze on p. III-14 and a sheet of paper with a small hole in the center. The student is to place the page with the hole over the maze page so that "S" on the maze appears in the hole, then slide the paper down the maze, which will appear a little at a time. Dots that appear along the path of the maze indicate that a choice point is near and the student should now guess whether the maze will continue to the right or left. Record the number of correct choices per trial (from S to E on the maze is one trial). For half of the students, allow one minute between each trial; for the other half allow no intervening time; that is, when E is reached, the student will immediately slide the paper back to S and start the next trial. Each student will continue until there are two successive errorless trials. Graph the results, plotting a massed practice curve and a spaced practice curve with the points on each curve representing the mean correct choices for each group of subjects for each trial (from Sanford and Wrightsman Workbook, pp. 203-207).

C. (For Obj. C) For experiments dealing with the effects of positive and negative transfer, see Minahan and Costin's Experiments on a Shoestring, Part IV, Section G, pp. 66-67.

D. (For Obj. D)

1. For activities illustrating the importance of the meaningfulness of material, see Minahan and Costin's Experiments on a Shoestring, Part IV, Section E. pp. 62-64.

2. Discuss with the students the importance of relevance in their ability to learn and retain material. Do the students ask why they should learn something, i.e., search for some relevance in


S
E

the material to be learned? This might be the appropriate moment for discussion of how the students find their psychology course (or other courses) relevant. The teacher might also point out that different people find different but equally valid sources of relevance in the material to be learned. Discuss with the students what the effect on their learning is when they regard certain material as irrelevant.

E. (For Obj. E)

1. Ask the students if they need to be actively involved in something in order to learn it. For an experiment illustrating the importance of active involvement, see Minahan and Costin's Experiments on a Shoestring, No. 60, p. 61. Ask the students what they do (or could do) in a lecture situation, such as taking notes, asking questions, etc., that involves their overtly doing something with the material that is being presented. The teacher might also want to note that involvement can be emotional and that overt action isn't a necessary indication of active involvement. This kind of involvement might occur when the material is presented in a dramatic manner; here the student might be concerned about how something will turn out, or be asking questions of himself and silently considering the points being made. However, overt action, e.g., asking questions of the teacher, is likely to be more advantageous than more passive involvement in ridding the student of any misconceptions about what is being said.

2. A different activity illustrating the importance of active involvement in learning has the students considering what the appropriate criteria are for scoring fairly the answers to an essay question which they have been given. Give the students a test involving at least one essay question, after which the class should discuss the question(s), arriving at the criteria for an appropriate answer to the question(s). The students would then grade their own questions based upon the criteria. Discuss whether this process had contributed to the students' learning of the material tested, and if so why. Focus the discussion on the principles of learning that might be involved: active involvement in developing the criteria, possible increased relevance of the material, immediate feedback, heightened motivation, etc.

F. (For Obj. F) Ask the students to describe what factors affect their motivation to learn something. Here it might be helpful to name different learning situations (learning how to play baseball, how to type, learning about human behavior in a psychology course, learning a spelling-vocabulary list) to elicit various factors that influence motivation. (For an activity that might be useful, see Activity G.) Then discuss the influence on the individual's motivation to learn of factors such as:

1. Extrinsic and intrinsic rewards: Ask the students to describe the rewards given for learning some material and determine which are intrinsic and which are extrinsic rewards. Which rewards seem to be most (and least) effective in motivating them to learn?

2. Punishment: The potentially positive and negative effects of punishment in motivating learning can be illustrated by asking the students to suggest what the effects of punishment might be in the following situations:

   a) A student receives a composition back with what he considers to be a low grade for his effort; the paper is full of comments and corrections.

   b) A young child in school is more often told that his answers are wrong than correct (or, he is more often told by his parents what he does wrong at home than what he does right).

   c) A student is suspended for cutting classes three times.

   d) A child is punished for hitting his baby sister.

   e) A noisy child is told repeatedly to stop talking.

   f) A child is told not to hold a baseball bat in a particular way, and shown how to hold it in the proper manner.

3. Competition: Ask the students how competition can be an aid or a hindrance in learning and retention. Here one could compare the more traditional American school in this regard to that of Summerhill. Other readings that might be illuminating are John Holt's How Children Learn, How Children Fail.

4. Anxiety: To illustrate the role anxiety plays in a person's ability to learn and retain material, the teacher might inform the students at the beginning of class that they are about to have a test on the material covered the previous day(s). The teacher might wish to emphasize the importance of this unanticipated test by walking around the room, telling the students to get paper and pen ready, etc. Then discuss with the students to what degree they think the anxiety they may be feeling will help or hinder them in their test performance. If they were allowed a few minutes to study, ask whether they seemed to retain the material better (in a high-anxiety situation) than when it was first presented (in a low-anxiety situation). The teacher might also have the students give examples from their own experience of the positive and negative effects of anxiety on their success in learning and retaining material. Question whether there is a need for some anxiety in order to learn effectively and how the optimal anxiety level varies from one individual to another with the type of material to be learned.

5. Active vs. passive involvement of the learner: see Activity E. Throughout the discussions, examples can illustrate how these factors interrelate as they influence motivation. The students should coume to an awareness of the complexity of this matter. Finally, explore with the students how these various factors might be employed by the teacher, institutions, society in general, as well as themselves, for more effective learning and retention.

G. (For Obj. E)* The following experiment can illustrate factors involved in a learning situation:

Instruct the students that they will be presented with a list of ten anagrams which they are to unscramble so that each spells a word. Tell the students that they will also record the time it took them to unscramble the ten words. Give each student the following list, telling them not to look at the words until the signal is given to begin.

Before giving the students a second list to unscramble, read the following fictitious norms to the class: The average college student can unscramble ten anagrams of comparable difficulty in 20 to 40 seconds. The typical high school student can unscramble the ten words in 41 to 70 seconds. Junior high school students can unscramble the ten words in 71 to 95 seconds, while children in the elementary grades take over 95 seconds to unscramble the ten words.

Have the students compare their first performance with these norms and encourage them to do better on the second set of anagrams. Then present the students with the second list, using the same procedure as before.

First Set of Anagrams		Second Set of Anagrams	
epalp	(apple)	ersds	(dress)
epi	(pie)	napst	(pants)
anbnaa	(banana)	useblo	(blouse)
agreon	(orange)	tble	(belt)
rpae	(pear)	krist	(skirt)
loenm	(lemon or melon)	ohes	(shoe)
yrhrec	(cherry)	tha	(hat)
apech	(peach)	aetcjk	(jacket)
cpnea	(pecan)	ewetsar	(sweater)
itruf	(fruit)	octa	(coat)

Have the students compare their times on the two lists. Then tell them that the information given above about time and skill in solving anagrams was untrue. Discuss with them what effect that information had on their motivation to solve the second set of anagrams. What factors contributed to their increased (or decreased) motivation and performance?

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*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.

H. (For Obj. G) Some examples might be useful in helping students to recognize that different people may have different learning styles:

1. John can only study in his room alone and with absolute quiet. He studies to get the good grades he feels are needed to enter a good college and eventually medical school. He studies by reading and silently reciting a summary of what he has read. In school his grades are high in all subjects and this is important to him.

2. David studies most effectively either in the school library where there is the low hum of others' voices or at home in the family room while others watch TV. He is successful at learning scientifically-oriented material for he is fascinated by the methods and discoveries of the sciences. He studies by taking notes of material important to him as he reads. He also conducts some of the experiments described or that he develops on his own. His performance in school is erratic; while he does very well in science courses, his grades in English and social studies are poor. This, however, is of little concern to him.

   From these examples, focus the student's attention on the environmental situation in which he learns best. Ask him also to consider ways in which he can increase his own involvement in the learning process in a more meaningful way, taking into account such factors as motivation, the type of material to be learned and its difficulty, its relevance, etc.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to give examples of how the deeper a person progresses into mental illness the more his ability to control his learning is impaired.

B. Activity

Present the students with the following case histories (from Patterns of Psychopathology, pp. 27-29, 172-173):[8]

1. (a neurotic) Helene L. was a 15-year-old high school student who was brought by her parents to a private psychiatrist at the insistence of a school psychologist because she had been in constant difficulty in school, and was a marked underachiever. She was the oldest of two children, and had always been difficult to handle. Her eccentricities both accentuated her parents' rejection and made it difficult for her to get along with her classmates. Upon entering school, she was immediately recognized by other students as odd because she had such a fascination with numbers that she would feel

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[8] Reprinted with permission of Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., from Patterns of Psychopathology by Melvin Zax and George Stricker. Copyright © 1963.

compelled to count as high as she could, and would also sometimes speak in a numerical code rather than use words. Her only apparent interests were art and chess, and she was quite adept at both. Her artistic productions, in a variety of media, won her the only semblance of recognition she ever obtained. Her interest in chess led her to a deep involvement with the history of the game and its great players of the past. However, she shied away from playing the game very much because she feared competitiveness.

As Helene grew, she increased her repertory of compulsive symptoms. One of the earliest to develop was a feeling that she must count the number of steps she was taking whenever she walked anywhere. Later she began to feel the need to look over her shoulder as she was walking, although she could not express what it was that she was looking for or at. She also began to wash her hands repeatedly, interrupting whatever she was doing to cleanse herself. She felt the necessity to look repetitiously at objects or parts of her body, such as her elbow, at as often as five-minute intervals, although here too she could not express any reason for doing so. She also began repeating various innocuous phrases, such as, "That is a nice home," over and over again. While she could offer no plausible reason for any of these activities, failure to perform them always led to great anxiety, which was relieved only by performance of the compulsive act.

Although Helene appeared to be a bright child she never did very well in school, either academically or socially. Perhaps one reason for her academic deficiency was her preoccupation with ritualistic concerns, which prevented her giving full attention to her work. For example, in the classroom, she might have been struck by the thought that she fully understood a point that was made. Rather than trust her judgment, she sought confirmation by setting a variety of proofs for herself so that she might reason, "If I really do understand, the next thing the teacher says will contain less than five words," or "If she writes something on the blackboard in the next minute, then I surely am right." She would set up a sequence of these wearisome "proofs," and if her original idea was not "confirmed," or if she attempted not to persist at setting tasks she became very anxious.

2. (a psychotic) Lillian H. was a 62-year-old spinster who was admitted for the third time to a small private mental institution.

The episode which led to hospitalization began seven months prior to admission when Lillian began to feel that she was not able to work as efficiently as she wanted. It was also suspected that she resented the fact that younger people were advancing at a faster rate than she. As a result she retired and remained alone, living in a single room, having few friends and only her solitary interests in reading and music. After a few months she attempted to go back to work, taking several jobs which she held only for short periods of time. Finally, about one month prior to admission she returned to her home town for a vacation with her younger sister, who, on a visit to her, found her depressed and mildly agitated. Lillian gradually became more and more depressed, eating sparsely, sleeping little, and roaming aimlessly about the house saying "what shall I do - it's too involved." She suffered crying spells, a loss of weight, constipation, and gradually began to feel dejected throughout the day.

When these symptoms became extreme Lillian was admitted to the hospital. When interviewed, she sat rigidly in her chair, wringing her hands and continually saying, "It's too involved, too complicated, you can't help me. I don't know what to do." The interview was frequently interrupted by her pacing back and forth, only to sit down again and begin to moan. Although she seemed alert, she responded to questions only after long pauses, if at all, and often said simply, "It's too involved," or "Don't ask me any more questions, I don't talk about that."

Have the students compare the two individuals by considering the degree to which their disorders interfered with their ability to control their learning. While a normal person can choose to become involved in a learning situation, attend to the material presented, and in other ways control his learning, a neurotic is less able to exert control, and a psychotic is likely to have but little control over his learning. In the case of the neurotic above, the girl's anxiety interfered with her ability to attend to and be actively involved in what was being presented in the classroom. It should be noted that the poor control of the neurotic is limited in its extent. He is able to learn in some areas but unable to function effectively in other learning situations. "The core of the neurosis lies at the point where anxiety has blocked or distorted the learning process so that new learning essential to adjustment cannot take place" (White in Krech, p. 773). These areas of blockage may be many or few depending on the extensiveness of the neurosis. They might even include no academic areas but extend only to learning in certain social situations. In the more extreme case, the neurotic interference could extend to academic areas generally. In the case of the psychotic, the woman's illness has so interfered with her ability to control her learning that she was unable to enter into a situation where learning could take place. She appears unable to participate in any learning situation because its requirements are too much for her. This general state of inability to control or mobilize oneself for learning represents the extreme end of the continuum of control in this regard. (See also Krech, pp. 773-779 and the boxes on pp. 774-775, 777; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 573-574, 583; and Hilgard, pp. 464, 467, 472.)

LEARNING - TECHNOLOGY

Module 3-E

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Through a combination of modern technology and principles of operant conditioning, techniques and mechanisms have been developed which can assist an individual in his learning.

II. KEY TERMS

Biofeedback

Feedback

Operant Conditioning

Programmed Instruction

Reinforcement

Shaping

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to explain biofeedback and programmed instruction in terms of operant conditioning. (Hilgard, pp. 247-253; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 391-392; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 663-665; Kagan readings, pp. 301-305; Psychology Today, June, 1973, pp. 82-86.)

B. The student will be able to explain why operant conditioning is more appropriate than classical conditioning in both biofeedback and programmed instruction.

C. The student will be able to describe how feedback, shaping, and reinforcement are utilized in biofeedback and programmed instruction.

D. The student will be able to describe those principles of learning which are necessary for effective use of biofeedback and programmed instruction. (See Module 3-D, Learning - Control.)

E. The student will be able to analyze and give examples of the potential advantages and disadvantages of biofeedback and programmed instruction. (McKinney, pp. 128-141; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 663-665; Psychology Today, June, 1973, pp. 82-86.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Present the students with an example of programmed learning (McKinney, pp. 128-141; CRM, Involvement in Psychology Today, pp. 86-87) and have the students work through the program. When they are finished, ask them to describe what they did and how the program worked in terms of the operant conditioning paradigm.

B. (For Obj. C) To illustrate the role of feedback and shaping in learning, the teacher might vary Experiment No. 59, p. 58, in Minahan and Costin's Experiments on a Shoestring. Mark a line across the bottom of a sheet of paper (baseline), and then draw a series of lines parallel to the baseline and one-half inch apart extending from five inches to eight inches away from the baseline. The blindfolded subject will first be instructed to draw a line up from the baseline and from five inches to eight inches long. For each trial he will receive feedback indicating the correctness of his response. Gradually shape the subject's responses so that he draws a line from six inches to six and one-half inches long. To illustrate the importance of feedback, the same experiment could be conducted, but without giving feedback to the subject.

C. (For Objs. C and D) On the basis of Activity A, discuss with the students what principles of learning are involved in an effective programmed instruction situation. The students should quickly realize that feedback and positive reinforcement are necessary in an effective program. They might also consider how programmed instruction attempts to increase the motivation and active involvement of the learner, and why this is important for effective learning (see Module 3-D, Learning-Control; Hilgard, pp. 247-253).

D. (For Objs. C and D) Have the students read "The Matriculating Brain" in Psychology Today, June, 1973, pp. 82-86. From the article, elicit from the students how biofeedback can be explained in terms of the operant conditioning paradigm. Discuss how the principles of feedback, shaping, and reinforcement are used to help the individual learn to control some aspect of the autonomic nervous system.

E. (For Obj. B) Assuming the students are familiar with both operant and classical conditioning, discuss with them why the operant conditioning paradigm is more appropriate in both biofeedback and programmed instruction. Here the basic assumptions underlying the paradigms should be explored (Hilgard, pp. 189-197; Krech, pp. 288-292, 302-305).

F. (For Obj. E) On the basis of the Psychology Today article (see Activity D), discuss with the students the potential advantages and disadvantages of biofeedback. The students may also consider the advantages and disadvantages of biofeedback as compared to drugs in controlling aspects of the autonomic system.

G. (For Obj. E) On the basis of Activity A above, and B. F. Skinner's article, "Teaching Machines" in McKinney, pp. 128-141, discuss with the students possible school applications of programmed instruction (the teacher might want to limit this to high school uses). Elicit from the students those subject and skill areas (e.g., grammar, math, learning the process by which a bill becomes a law) where programmed instruction could be effectively used, as well as those areas (e.g., literary criticism, synthesis of a number of historical events) where programmed instruction might have limitations. Here any criticisms the students might have had of the program in Activity A might be useful.

UNIT IV - THINKING

(Includes Modules 4-B, 4-C, and 4-D)

THINKING - IDENT

Module 4-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Thinking is the translation of experience into symbolic form and is related to cognitive style, intellectual ability, and creativity. These abilities emerge in a developmental pattern much like other human processes. The sequence is probably the same for all people although the rate of emergence of different processes differs from individual to individual. An individual's image of himself as a thinking person depends upon the relative degree to which he possesses the above traits and the value each of these has in the particular social milieu in which that person operates.

II. KEY TERMS

Cognitive Style (Hilgard, et al, p. 425; Krech, et al, pp. 698-701)

Identity Formation

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to provide examples which illustrate that developmentally a person's cognitive style will differ from time to time, and his concept of himself will be affected by his current cognitive style. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 62-65; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 321-323, 363-367)

B. The student will be able to explain using examples, that "trying on" of different cognitive styles is related to identity formation. Some of these get discarded; others become incorporated into the personality. (Kalish, pp. 185-186)

C. Adolescence can be viewed as a transition period between youthful and adult styles. The student will be able to explain, using examples, the problems which may occur in making this transition from one cognitive style to another as the earlier style becomes age-inappropriate. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 92-94)

D. The student will be able to explain that an individual's image of himself is in part based on how he perceives himself in relation to a group.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Have students in groups investigate literature related to the differences in cognitive style in young children as compared to adolescents and adults. Popular novels in which the authors attempt to capture youthful points of view could be used here, e.g., The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, The Adventures of Huck Finn, Member of the Wedding, To Kill a Mockingbird. Older characters in the stories could be used for contrast. Have each group relate this to ways children see themselves as compared to the ways young adults see themselves and report back to total class.

B. (For Objs. B and C)

1. Have class work in groups of six. Each group would decide (or be assigned by the teacher) to represent an aspect of cognitive style such as:

    a) High field dependence vs, high field independence (Hilgard, et al, p. 425; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 418-420)

    b) Reserved vs. outgoing

    c) Trusting vs. suspicious

    d) High tolerance for ambiguity vs. low tolerance for ambiguity (Kalish, pp. 282-283)

2. Each group of six would break into two subgroups, each subgroup taking one extreme or the other of the cognitive style chosen.

3. Present the class with a situation. Each subgroup will discuss how they think people represented by the cognitive style of their subgroup would react in that situation, both as to how that person would perceive the situation and how he would perceive himself in that situation.

    Example of situation:

    John is discussing a current problem with his peers: the local teen-managed center, a popular place, is having problems. Many people don't clean up after using the facilities, and some people are rowdy and somewhat destructive. All agree something must be done, but no one seems to be listening to John's ideas as to what to do.

C. (For Obj. D) One aspect of a person's image of himself involves the degree to which he views himself as being creative. The following activity is concerned with this personality characteristic.

1. Place the scale shown below on the board and have each class member privately rate himself on the scale by writing down the appropriate number on a blank piece of paper.

EXAMPLE

How creative am I?

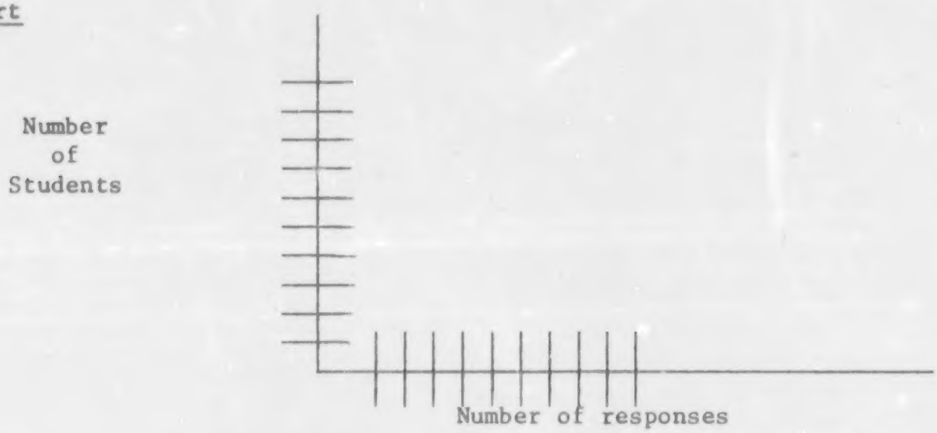
Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
seldom think of new ideas			about the same as everybody else my age			Often think of good and unusual ways of doing things

2. Give the class a quick exercise in creativity which can be scored numerically.

   Example: In the next three minutes, write down as many uses as you can for a brick, paper clip, plastic cup, hub cap, etc. (See Module 4-D for other exercises.)

3. Have the students pass in their unsigned responses - after each has noted the number of responses he made on the paper that had his rating on it. Prepare the following chart on the board on the basis of the responses. The teacher at this point should point out that reaction to a single, timed exercise does not in fact offer evidence of the degree to which a person is creative.

   Chart



4. Ask the students after they have examined the chart to again rate themselves on the continuum. Have them write the new rating down on the original paper.

5. Break the class into groups to discuss the implications of this exercise. Each group is to discuss one of the following (along with other observations they want to make):

   a) How different age groups might react to this exercise, in terms of changing their ratings, based on this one trial

   b) What would have happened if the highest scorers were singled out and allowed to engage in rewarding activities while the low scorers were given some rote learning tasks?

   c) What would have happened if one group (males/females - black/white - younger/older) did noticeably better on this one exercise? Discuss from point of view of either the higher or lower group.

6. Have each small group present the results of their discussion to the total class. The teacher might also wish to discuss what other aspects of an individual's self-image are influenced by comparison with others.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

1. The student will be able to illustrate identity problems due to an individual differing markedly from his group in cognitive style, intellectual ability, or creativity. (Krech, et al, pp. 829-832)

2. The student will be able to cite instances where severe pathology in the thinking processes seriously interferes with identity, as in the case of psychotics who see themselves as God, the devil, or the President of the United States. (Krech, et al, pp. 776-777)

B. Activities

1. Have students list situations from their own experience:

    a) Where a highly creative person was at a disadvantage in a highly structured or conforming situation

    b) Where a person of average intelligence must function and compete with those who are markedly superior or inferior to him in this ability

    Discuss with the students how adaptive or maladaptive behavior might occur in each situation. Also discuss what long-term effects there might be on the person's self-image because he is in such a situation.

2. Have the students read, either as committees for presentation to the rest of the class, or as individuals for general discussion, the following:

    a) The story of "The Three Faces of Eve." (Thighpen and Cleckley, "A Case of Multiple Personality," Guthrie (editor), 1970, pp. 117-148; and in the Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XLIX, No. 1, 1954, pp. 135-144, or in book form, Three Faces of Eve.

    b) A report of the delusions of three mental patients in Rokeach's "The Three Christs of Ypsilanti," in Guthrie (editor), 1970, pp. 149-158.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. B)

1. List four pairs of behaviors which connote dimensions of cognitive style. (Example: Field dependence vs. field independence)

2. For any one pair of the four you have just listed, indicate how these styles are manifested in behavior.

B. (For Obj. C) The period of adolescence plays an important part in the formation of adult identity. Discuss how the concept of cognitive style contributes to our understanding of this process.

C. Normal - Abnormal Continuum (For Obj. 1) Joe Smith was a successful student in his vocational agriculture class because of his high ability in working with farm equipment. Joe's family sold the farm and moved to the city. Joe was placed in a college prep program where he began to receive low and failing grades. Discuss the transition in terms of possible identity problems facing Joe, including problems related to cognitive style.

D. Normal - Abnormal (For Obj. 2) Give two examples from your reading or class discussion of how disruption of the thinking process seriously affects identity processes.

THINKING - PREJUDICE

Module 4-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Complex situations require a tolerance for delaying judgment until sufficient evidence is available on which to draw an adequate conclusion. When judgment is not delayed in such situations, generalizations are often relied upon, one type of which is stereotyping. Stereotyping is the cognitive aspect of prejudice. (Kalish, p. 372)

II. KEY TERMS

Adaptability (Adaptive behavior)

Ambiguity

Ambiguity, tolerance for

Cognition

Generalization

Set, cognitive

Stereotype

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to give examples of generalizations, and of stereotypes as one kind of generalization. (Engle and Snellgrove, glossary, pp. 50-59; Kalish, pp. 81-82; Krech, _et al_, pp. 801-803)

B. The student will be able to illustrate the adaptive value of generalization. (Wertheimer, _et al_, pp. 179-181)

C. The student will be able to cite examples he has encountered of low tolerance for ambiguity leading to premature generalization. (Kalish, p. 372)

D. Among the examples cited in _C_ above, the student will be able to distinguish those in which the complexity of the situation, combined with low tolerance for ambiguity, led to oversimplification and stereotyping. (Engle and Snellgrove, p. 151; Hilgard, _et al_, pp. 405-406; Kalish, pp. 81-82; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 376)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Have students pick a group, then volunteer what they think of as typical characteristics of that group until they have arrived at a list of characteristics on which there is general agreement.

Example: Liberal, political crusader

1. Middle class?

2. Not an elected official?

3. Idealistic?

4. Professional?

5. Socially-oriented?

6. Striver?

7. Emotional?

8. Publicity-seeking?

9. Intelligent?

10. Soft-hearted?

The teacher should then elicit from the students a list of well-known figures they think belong within the group and, based on their list of characteristics, have them examine how well each figure fits the stereotype. Possibilities for this example might be: Ralph Nader, John Gardner, Robert McNamara, or other figures sufficiently well-known to be used for the exercise. How good in each case is the fit between the individual and the type or group? Are there always discrepancies? To what extent do these negate the usefulness or validity of the idea of the group or type?

Other possible groups to stereotype are: W.A.S.P.'s (White Anglo-Saxon Protestants), Blacks, Jews, Italians, movie stars, folk singers, male hairdressers, female cab drivers, construction workers, doctors, Marine sergeants, etc.

B. (For Obj. B) Discuss with the students the notion that generalities may be scaled on two continua: (1) with regard to their usefulness to the individual believing them, and (2) with regard to their correspondence to reality, and that these do not always coincide for a given generalization. Example:

The generalization, "Bears in national parks are dangerous," may be scaled on these continua in the following way:

Usefulness:

low ______________________ (Bears . . . are dangerous)high

Correspondence to reality:

low(Bears . . . are dangerous) ______________________ high

1. Redheads are hot-tempered.

2. Streams in this country are polluted.

3. Under threat of attack by an animal, it is better not to look afraid.

4. All artists are Bohemian.

5. Scientists know little of literature and the arts.

6. Doctors have poor handwriting.

This exercise can be used to make the point that generalizations sometimes have value even when of moderate or low validity in cases where the cost of not accepting the generalization is great. (Example: By not flying, one avoids the possibility of dying in a crash, even if the frequency of crashes is low.)

C. (For Obj. B) Play "20 Questions," using a well-known figure such as an entertainer, in order to show that stereotypes can be useful in narrowing down a field of choices.

D. (For Obj. B) Divide the students into two groups, each of which will be presented with different lists of ten scrambled words. The experimental list is composed of nine closely-related words (e.g., medical terms, military terms, etc.) and one nonrelated word at the end of the list. The control list is composed of ten nonrelated words. The groups are to be tested separately so that one group will not profit from the experience of the other.

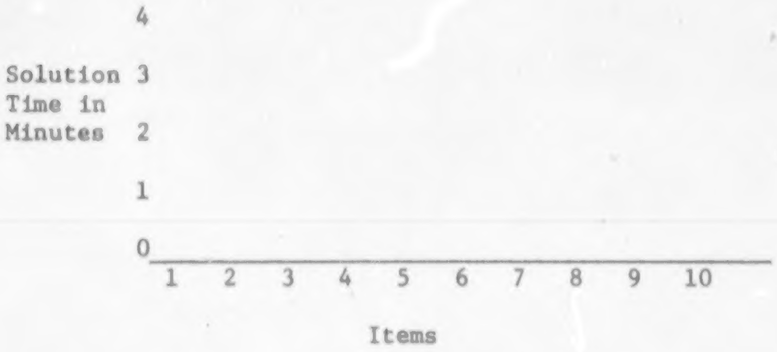
In each list, the students are to call out the correct word as quickly as possible and the time is noted. The expectation is that once a set is established, the unscrambling process becomes progressively shortened, while the list involving no set shows no great change over items. The tenth word in the experimental list should take longer to solve than the first word due to the interference of set when it is no longer appropriate.

Instructions to students:

This is an experiment in anagram solution. As you may know, an anagram is a word with its letters rearranged. I will show you a number of anagrams, one at a time. You are to determine without the aid of paper and pencil what the original word is. Work as rapidly as you can since you will be allowed a maximum of four minutes for each anagram. As soon as you have a solution, call it out. If you cannot solve any anagrams in the time allotted, we will stop and go to the next one after I give you the answer. You will try to solve ten different anagrams. Here is the first anagram.

The teacher should keep track of the solution time with a stop watch. This activity has been set up for a class divided into two groups, each of which should be tested separately. The teacher may decide to take small groups of approximately six students each and have the rest of the class quietly observe. Prepare a graph showing any change in solution times over successive items for each of the two conditions.

The graph may be set up this way:



Experimental Set	Control Set
Manmdoc (Command)	Manmdoc (Command)
Redor (Order)	Whelist (Whistle)
Ramy (Army)	Raich (Chair)
Oybe (Obey)	Limk (Milk)
Lerisod (Soldier)	Doroct (Doctor)
Vany (Navy)	Saqure (Square)
Tuelsa (Salute)	Abyrrli (Library)
Nifuomr (Uniform)	Molen (Lemon)
Fleri (Rifle)	Acehb (Beach)
Ulfro (Flour)	Ulfro (Flour)

E. (For Objs. C and D) Have the students consider various situations in which a low tolerance for ambiguity leads to a premature generalization:

1. Habitual purchase of a particular brand of aspirin, cigarettes, shampoo, etc. without comparison of the various highly similar brands of the product

2. Decision not to fly on a particular airline because one of its planes crashed recently

3. A quick, unconsidered "yes" response to the question on a poll: "Do you think the United States should spend the money necessary to maintain its military supremacy?"

4. Consideration of and application to a few of 50 similar colleges

5. The decision to join a group and then adopting the attitudes of members of that group without seriously considering the complex implications of those attitudes (See Module 7-B, Social - Identity, Obj. B and Activity B.)

Ask the students what the generalization may be in each case, and how a low tolerance for ambiguity could contribute to the formation of a premature generalization. Then consider with the students how the complexity of the situation combined with low tolerance for ambiguity might lead to oversimplification. For instance, the decision to apply to particular colleges is both a difficult and complex process since there are hundreds of colleges from which to choose. The applicant may oversimplify his requirements for the college as well as his view of the colleges themselves. Thus, some colleges are "too old-looking," "too isolated," "too hard," etc. The teacher might want the students to also consider that generalization and a low tolerance for ambiguity may be helpful (and perhaps necessary) in enabling one to arrive at a decision, be it what kind of aspirin to buy or which colleges to apply to. On the other hand, this may be harmful, particularly if one doesn't consider the various aspects of a complex problem (as in national budgetary allotments) or in one's responses to a particular group (as in the decision to hire only males for executive positions). The degree of complexity of the situation may also influence the advantages and disadvantages of generalization.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

1. The degree of "privateness" or personal idiosyncrasy involved in the explanation of a stereotype, proverb, or other generalization has been used as a criterion of pathology in thinking. The student, given a proverb, will be able to give a "public" and a "private" explanation of its meaning.

2. The student will be able to give examples illustrating that responses based upon cognitive set can be maladaptive and/or prejudicial.

B. Activities

1. (For Obj. 1-A) Read some responses given by schizophrenics to the following five proverbs[9] and discuss these in relation to the "private" vs. "public:" continuum. Have the students guess at some of the associations underlying the schizophrenic explanations.

   (When the cat's away the mice will play.)
   "As applied to what? Just give the mice more liberty."

   (It never rains but it pours.)
   "It means nothing more or less than extremely wet weather."

   (A rolling stone gathers no moss.)
   "Simply, that the speed of the stone would prohibit the gathering of any substance. You know, I feel that things have a tendency to stick to me, even with speed."

---

[9] From John D. Benjamin. "A Method for Distinguishing and Evaluating Formal Thinking Disorders in Schizophrenia." In J. S. Kasanin (ed.). Language and Thought in Schizophrenia. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1944), pp. 65-88. Reprinted bv permission of The Regents of the University of California.

"That a person who is always busy doesn't stop for reflection, doesn't grow in mental and moral stature."

(Don't count your chickens until they're hatched.)
"A person who brags all the time never gets anywhere."

(The proof of the pudding is in the eating.)
"That's my pudding, doctor. All God gave forgiveness. Oh, mamma, why did they make expensive weddings? Why don't they stay home, mamma?"

Listed below are three proverbs each of which is accompanied by three responses that are idiosyncratic (private). The responses may all be judged as failing to answer the question, "What does this proverb mean?" Each set of three responses represents a progression from a literal to an idiosyncratic or personal interpretation.

a) "A rolling stone gathers no moss."

(1) "Moss won't stick to it if it's rolling."

(2) "I've got a lot of moss in my back yard."

(3) "I never liked my aunt (Moss)."

b) "People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones."

(1) "Glass will break unless it's safety glass."

(2) "It's a fragile world, easily broken."

(3) "The kids used to beat up on me when I was little."

c) "Don't put all your eggs in one basket."

(1) "You might drop it and break all of them."

(2) "It's a shame how they color chicks at Easter."

(3) (sings) "A tisket, a tasket. . . . . . ."

Using other proverbs, such as those listed below, some students might volunteer to make up their own "schizophrenic" or private explanations. (No student should be required to take part in this activity orally in class or on paper.) What makes these definitions "private"? The teacher might want the students to consider at this point the difficulty of communicating abstract thoughts, and what it is that makes some of these communications more successful than others e.g., shared frame of reference and commonality of associations within it.

a) "Don't count your chickens before they're hatched."

b) "Don't cry over spilled milk."

c) "All that glitters is not gold."

d) "Don't cross your bridges until you come to them."

e) "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

2. (For Obj. 2-A) One way in which cognitive set may be maladaptive is illustrated by the following activity: The teacher has the students participate in the "water jug" experiment which he depicts on the board. (Krech, et al, p. 427)

3. The following is an activity that may help clarify how habitual responses may interfere with new learning. The teacher will prepare several cards of various colors printing on each in large letters, the name of the corresponding color. These cards will be flashed one at a time to the class. A student will be asked to say the name which appears on each card.

   A second group of cards will then be presented. This time, however, the names of the colors will not correspond to the colors that actually appear (i.e., the label "red" might appear on a green card, etc.). A student will again be asked to say the words that he/she sees.

   These activities illustrate the strength of our readiness to respond in fixed ways (cognitive set) to certain stimuli. We have strong, well established, and usually socially reinforced, associations between stimuli and responses to them (including verbal labels). While such associations are generally facilitating, they can be maladaptive and/or prejudicial. Other examples of maladaptive set are provided by the anagram exercise in Activity D above and by Activity E in Module 1-C. Examples where set has a prejudicial effect can be found in Activities C and D Module 1-C. By illustrating the habitual and controlling way in which such sets can shape our view of things, they convey how strong and fixed the cognitive components of a prejudice may be. Both from the standpoint of prejudice and of creativity, the students might consider the importance of being able to understand and in some cases overcome set. Such consideration will provide links to Modules 1-D and 4-D, on the topic of control over one's own perceptions and thinking.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) Think of a group to which you belong - a team, a club, a church group, an association of friends, etc. List three generalizations that a person who does not belong to this group might make about the members of the group. Would these be stereotypes? Why or why not?

B. (For Obj. B) As a two-year-old child, Jim got too close to the fire in the fireplace and was badly burned on his hand. If the process of generalization occurred, what might be Jim's reaction to flames of any kind? How does this relate to "the adaptive value of generalization"?

C. (For Objs. C and D) Under conditions of stress, tolerance for ambiguity in a situation is lowered, and this frequently leads to premature generalizations. List three examples from your experience where this low tolerance for ambiguity has led you to generalize prematurely. At least one of these examples should involve a situation, the complexity of which necessitated over-simplification, which led to premature generalization.

THINKING - CONTROL

Module 4-D

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

It is possible for an individual to control to some degree his ability to solve problems. Some factors which influence problem-solving ability are:

1. The structure of the problem
2. The set, motivation, intelligence, and personality of the individual
3. Social setting

An individual may be able to influence his problem-solving ability in a given situation by varying one or more of the above factors which are in his control

II. KEY TERMS

Creative Problem-Solving

Convergent Thinking

Divergent Thinking Set

Intelligence

Motivation

Routine Thinking

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to explain how problem-solving ability varies with respect to the structure of the problem. The organization of the problem's parts may aid or obstruct the individual in finding a solution. (Krech, pp. 403 Box, 417 Box, and 413)

B. Related to Instructional Objective A, the student will be able to illustrate with examples the notion that difficulties in problem solving often involve an inability to overcome an existing set and/or other distracting influences. (Krech, p. 403 Box, p. 412 Box, p. 427 Box; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 333, 339, 342-344; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 420-421) (See also Module C-1 Perception-Prejudice for further explanation and examples of set.)

C. The student will be able to distinguish between creative and routine thinking. (An alternative set of terms which refers to the same distinction is "productive" vs. "reproductive" thinking.) (Krech, p. 402)

D. The student will be able to state an advantage of divergent over convergent questions in terms of their ability to stimulate thinking and generate new ideas. (Sanford and Wrightsman, p. 454)

E. The student will be able to give some evidence that intelligence and problem-solving ability are not identical. (Krech, pp. 442-443; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 353-355; Psychology 1973-1974, pp. 380-384; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 454-455)

F. The student will be able to cite an example of a problem for whose solution the organization of knowledge is more important than a large amount of knowledge. (Krech, p. 436; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 369)

G. The student will be able to state two factors which influence an individual's ability to generate novel ideas.

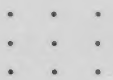
H. The student will be able to illustrate with examples that an individual's ability to generate novel solutions depends to some extent upon personality factors and previous learning. (Krech, pp. 414, 418)

I. The student will be able to cite examples which illustrate the relationship between motivation and problem solving. In particular, he will be able to state that there is an optimal level of motivation in problem solving for a given individual in a given situation and that motivation which is either too intense or too weak may interfere with problem solving. (Krech, p. 428; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 345)

J. The student will be able to explain one way in which problem-solving ability varies with social setting. (Krech, pp. 828-829)

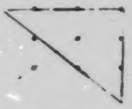
IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A and B) Have the students perform the following exercise:



"Starting anywhere you wish, draw four straight lines that will pass through every one of the nine dots, without lifting your pencil from the paper." (Krech, p. 403 Box)

SOLUTION: "The nine dots tend to be perceived as a square. But there are no boundary lines to prevent your drawing a line extending beyond the 'perceived' edge of the 'square.' Nothing was ever said about staying within the 'perceived confines' of the nine dots, yet the organizing nature of perception is such as to lead you to see a block to the movements of your pencil, where no block exists in fact." (Krech, p. 403 Box)



Solution

For other illustrations of set, see Module C-1 Perception-Prejudice

B. (For Objs. A and B) To illustrate variations in the type of problems, have the students perform the three-part experiment - invention, prediction, explanation - contained in Boxes 88-90 of the Krech text (pp. 412-416). Afterwards, a discussion might be held in which the students consider how variations in the type of problem facilitated or hindered the discovery of a solution. Which was the easiest to solve? The hardest? Ask the students to suggest reasons for their answers. In addition, have the students consider how set and distraction may have obstructed their attempts to solve the problem(s). For example, a student may have been set to see the candle as a source of light and heat. This may have prevented him from seeing it as an object of variable weight that could make the balance tip. In addition, extraneous objects in the picture may have distracted students from seeing the correct solution.

C. (For Objs. A and B) To illustrate how set may inhibit problem solving, present to the students the following list:

cello guitar

harp violin

drum

Ask the question: "Which item does not belong with the rest?" Some concept includes four of these items and excludes a fifth.

Pose the problem: "Construct five such concepts, each of which excludes a different single member of this set."

(Primarily due to the effects of set, the students will probably approach this problem by organizing solutions in terms of the objects named by the words in this list (e.g., a drum differs from the others in that it has no strings). In the process, they will most likely overlook other solutions that are to be found in other sets (e.g., Drum is the only word in the list containing the letter d, etc.).

D. (For Obj. B) To illustrate set and other distracting influences in problem-solving, have the students simulate in class experiments having to do with:

1. Set

   a) "Functional Fixity - A Barrier to Creative Problem Solving." (Krech, p. 417)

   b) "The Flower Stand Problem." (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 343-344; Kagan text, pp. 181-182)

   c) "The String Problem and Functional Fixedness." (Kagan text, pp. 182-183)

d) "The Water Jar Problem." (Krech, p. 427; Kagan, p. 179; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 339; Sanford and Wrightsman, p. 421)

2. Other Distractions

   a) "Invention." (Krech, p. 412)

   b) "The Flower Stand Problem." (Kagan text, pp. 181-182, McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 342-344)

   c) "Mental Dazzle." (Krech, p. 414)

Note that "The Flower Stand Problem" involves elements of both set and other distracting influences.

E. (For Obj. C) To illustrate some of the differences between creative and routine thinking, have the students perform a drawing-completion test of creativity. Ideas for items to include in such a test, along with samples of creative and routine responses, may be found in any of the following sources: Barron, in Coopersmith, pp. 258-259; Hilgard, p. 371; Kagan text, pp. 184-185; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 354. (The teacher might collect the drawings and, while taking precautions to preserve anonymity, have the students discuss which they see as "creative" and which "routine."

Afterwards, a discussion might be held in which the students consider in what ways creative responses differ from routine (or uncreative) ones and also what criteria might be used in judging when to place a particular drawing in one category or the other.

F. (For Obj. F) In problem solving, a rich store of knowledge may not in itself be sufficient for success; flexible thinking is required as well. A limited supply of meanings attached to particular stimulus patterns may give rise to rigidly set patterns of regarding objects, and hence, may limit an individual's problem-solving ability. However, a rich supply of such meanings, if organized in a way that permits flexible thinking, may enhance problem-solving ability.

To illustrate the importance of both richness and flexibility of knowledge in problem solving, have the students perform the following experiments in class:

1. "Invention." (Krech, et al, p. 412) How is flexibility important here? An individual who is unable to see the candle as an object of variable weight that can make the balance tip automatically will be unable to solve the problem.

2. "Specific Knowledge Versus Abstraction." (Krech, et al, p. 441) Both a rich supply of knowledge and flexibility of thought must be applied to solve this problem. One must be familiar with the principle of physics involved and be able to apply it in a specific and unusual way in order to arrive at the correct solution.

3. "'Availability' of Meanings and Problem Solving." (Krech, et al, p. 438)

G. (For Objs. F and G) To illuminate the role of knowledge in problem solving, have the students discuss the following passage:

> "...originality must build upon a solid base of past learning and experiences. Creative inventions cannot spring full-blown from an empty mind or from a man devoid of specific skills." (Krech, p. 418)

The teacher might want to give examples around which this discussion might revolve.

1. How much creativity in the area of musical orchestration might one reasonably expect of someone who had never played a musical instrument?
2. How much inventiveness in developing new types of high-speed computers could one reasonably expect of someone who had no familiarity with computers?
3. Others:

Fashion designer	Football game-plan strategist
Atomic physicist	Surgeon

H. (For Objs. G, H, and I) Have the students consider the following examples of how personality factors might affect a student's problem-solving ability in a timed exam:

1. A student who habitually gets so tense in such a situation that he cannot perform well?
2. A student who ordinarily "keeps his cool" and solves problems with precision and speed? (Krech, pp. 428,435)
3. A student who is insecure and generally does well only on multiple-choice, true-false questions when he can be sure of being right by memorizing the correct answers in advance?
4. A student who is an obsessive-compulsive who is easily thrown by details?
5. A student who doesn't want to go to college but his parents want him to?
6. A student who has a problem in accepting authority and needs to fight his teacher at every possible opportunity?
7. A student who has such a high need for approval (i.e., needs so badly to perform well) that his performance is inhibited?

Based upon such discussion, have the students consider examples from their own experience of test-taking or problem-solving when:

1. Motivation was so low that their performance suffered

2. Motivation to succeed was so intense that it inhibited performance

In addition to general discussion of the idea of an optimal level of motivation in problem-solving and how much it may vary from one individual to another, each student should be encouraged to consider what his own optimal level may be in this regard.

J. (For Obj. G) One aspect of creative problem solving involves the ability to make novel associations. To some extent, the associations an individual makes depends upon personality factors and previous learning. To illustrate this, have the students perform "Demonstration: Stream of Consciousness Thinking," including the discussion questions. (Minahan and Costin's Experiments on a Shoestring, experiment No. 71, p. 71.)

K. (For Objs. C, D, and E) The following is a test of creativity which is based on a person's ability to make remote associations.

Ask students to take the test and compare their scores. Are students most interested in art more creative than those interested in science? Math buffs more creative than humanities students? Is a student with an A average more creative than a student with a C average? Are men more creative than women? Does the test, in your opinion, truly measure creativity?

TEST OF CREATIVITY

Find a word that the three given words have in common. For example:

paint doll cat

The answer is house (house paint, doll house, and house cat).

1.	stool	powder	ball
2.	blue	cake	cottage
3.	man	wheel	high
4.	motion	poke	down
5.	line	birthday	surprise
6.	wood	liquor	luck
7.	house	village	golf
8.	card	knee	rope

9.	news	doll	tiger
10.	painting	bowl	nail
11.	weight	wave	house
12.	made	cuff	left
13.	key	wall	precious
14.	bull	tired	hot
15.	knife	up	hi
16.	handle	hole	police
17.	plan	show	walker
18.	hop	slide	pet
19.	bell	tender	iron
20.	spelling	line	busy

ANSWERS TO CREATIVITY TEST

1. foot
2. cheese
3. chair
4. slow
5. party
6. hard
7. green
8. trick
9. paper
10. finger
11. light
12. hand
13. stone
14. dog
15. jack
16. man
17. floor
18. car
19. bar
20. bee

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Afterwards, the teacher might want to reverse the experiment and have the students generate additional questions (i.e., trios of words linked by a single word). Ask the students if they consider this second test a better measure of creativity. Why or why not?

L. (For Objs. I and J) Brainstorming is a creative activity which involves generating novel ideas in relation to specific tasks. Give the students, in groups of five,* a task along the following lines:

1. In two minutes, name all the uses you can think of for a wire hanger. (Alternatives: paper clip, bobby pin, a six-foot piece of rope, a garbage can)

2. In three minutes, name as many responses as you can to the question, "What could I do for recreation this Sunday afternoon?" (Alternatives: "What could I do this summer?" "This Christmas vacation?" "Spring vacation?")

The teacher might easily turn this into a two-part experiment which will illustrate the importance of set and motivation in creative thinking. First, conduct one trial as described above without any coaching as to how the students might maximize the number and diversity of their responses. After this has been completed, give the students a short talk on how they might increase the number of ideas they generate. (The talk might include an examination of the importance of (1) flexible set, (2) considering a wide number of possibilities - even those which appear outlandish, (3) refraining from criticizing suggestions that are made, and (4) maintaining a high level of energy in the group.) Following this discussion, give the students a second task to be completed in the same amount of time as the first trial and compare the results with those of the first experiment.

After the results are tabulated, have the students consider the following questions:

1. If there was a difference in the results of the two trials, what factors might account for this difference? (This discussion should include the notions of set and motivation.)

2. What, if any, difference did the absence of criticism make in terms of the ability to generate numerous and diverse ideas?

3. Was there a difference in energy level between the two trials? If so, how did this affect the ability to generate novel ideas?

As a final activity, have each student write privately for a few minutes in answer to the question, "In future situations, how can I maximize my ability to generate novel ideas?" In this exercise it is a good idea to instruct the students that they will not be asked to show their answers to anyone else.

M. (For Objs. G and J) Does social setting influence brainstorming ability? Do people brainstorm more effectively when working in groups or when working alone? The following experiment is designed to stimulate discussion of these questions.

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*Small groups are recommended in order to avoid the confusion that might result if larger groups of students were to call out their responses simultaneously.

Divide the class into four approximately equal groups and assign them some label for identification (e.g. Group A, Group B, etc.). Then select two problems of similar type and difficulty, such as the following:

1. In two minutes, list all the uses for a bobby pin that you can think of.

2. In two minutes, list all the uses for an automobile tire that you can think of.

In this experiment, there will be two trials. In the first trial, assign the bobby pin problem to Groups A and B and the auto tire problem to Groups C and D. Have the members of Groups A and D work individually on their respective problems, while the members of groups B and C work collectively.

In the second trial, everything is reversed. Groups C and D will work on the bobby pin problem, while A and B work on the tire problem. Also, the members of Groups A and D will work collectively in this trial, while those in Groups B and C work individually. This procedure is summarized in the chart below:

	Trial 1	Trial 2
Group A	Bobby Pin Individually	Tire Collectively
Group B	Bobby Pin Collectively	Tire Individually
Group C	Tire Collectively	Bobby Pin Individually
Group D	Tire Individually	Bobby Pin Collectively

For each trial, compare the number of different responses generated by the group with the total number of different responses produced by those who worked alone. Be certain not to count duplicate responses among those who worked individually (i.e., if three students suggest the same use for a bobby pin in a given trial, this is to be counted as one response). Draw up totals for each trial. Then add up all the individual scores and compare this number with the total number of collective scores.

Questions for discussions:

1. Which method generated more responses?

2. What factors might account for this difference?

3. On the basis of this experiment, which of the following statements would you select as being most true:

   a) Working alone is the most productive method of brainstorming.

   b) Working with others is the most productive method of brainstorming.

   c) Whether one works alone or with others makes no difference in brainstorming.

   d) This experiment does not, in itself, provide a sufficient basis for making any claim as to what effect social setting has on brainstorming.

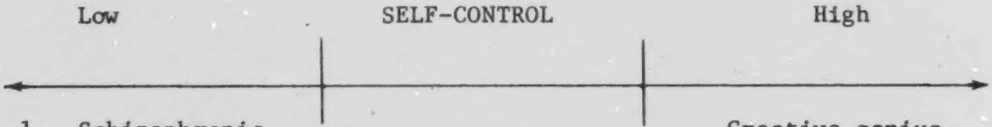
V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

1. The student will be able to illustrate, with examples, that both unusualness and appropriateness need to be considered in judging to what extent an act is creative. (Kagan text, pp. 184-185; Kagan readings, pp. 157-159; Cox, pp. 256-257)

2. The student will be able to relate the element of control of thinking to creativity, using as criteria of control the frequency and degree of unusualness and the context in which the ideas are expressed.

3. Using the criteria mentioned in Instructional Objective 2, the student will be able to illustrate how control of thinking, with regard to creativity, exists on a continuum.



1. Schizophrenic Creative genius

2. Overly rigid ("uptight") personality

(Note: Unusual behavior may be high in individuals near both extremes of this continuum. However, those who are high in self-control will generally be able to limit such behavior to appropriate circumstances, whereas those who are low in self-control may not.)

B. Activities

1. Both highly regarded artists and seriously disordered persons exhibit unusual behavior. Have the students consider what criteria might be used to distinguish among individuals who fall on opposite ends of the normal - abnormal continuum. How do they differ in terms of their ability to control when and to what extent their behavior is unusual?

1. An obsessive-compulsive individual who spends most of his waking moments engaged in cleaning his hands.
2. A man whose life is organized around his belief that the world will come to an end in 10 years.
3. A hebephrenic or paranoid schizophrenic in a mental hospital.
4. A man who works ceaselessly for 20 years trying to solve a problem and who talks of practically nothing else.

1. Pablo Picasso
2. Leonard Bernstein
3. e. e. cummings

2. Situational appropriateness is often a central factor in determining whether an individual is considered creative or pathological. To illustrate the importance of context in making such a determination, the teacher might acquaint the students with some examples of schizophrenic talk. (McKeachie and Doyle p. 528-529; Kisker, pp. 319-320; CRM, *Involvement in Psychology Today*, p. 126) Ask the students if they would describe such talk as *creative*. Or would they choose instead to call it *silly* or *crazy*? Or perhaps both *crazy* and *creative*? What, if anything, does such talk have in common with situations that one might find in a science fiction movie or novel? The teacher might ask the students how they would respond if one of their classmates began speaking in such a manner. Would they still think that such talk is *creative* or would their reaction be somewhat different? (Note: In this discussion, it might be useful for the teacher to cite examples of commonly-used criteria in determining abnormality. See *Module 2-C Motivation - Prejudice*, *Instructional Objective No. 3 under Normal - Abnormal Continuum* for such examples.)

3. Without knowing the context in which a behavior occurs, it may be difficult to judge a given performance as creative or pathological. To illustrate this, distribute to the students copies of the following quotations[10] and have them guess which are the products of widely respected authors and which were produced by seriously disordered mental patients.

   a) "A person once thought of, once said, wants to be admired, to be thought of as once said to be shown and admired, if it happens when and when to think of the individual, to think, but only as a guess on someone else's part. If it happened to be, it was supposed to have been done by another person than to ever have done such a foolish thing is ever not to having. It must slip away into the imaginary when it takes, and then relieves it of all its, evidently a laugh is enough although it shouldn't be done in a way to make it difficult for a person why it is or isn't being done. If it is to show a person, why is it ridiculous?"

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[10] Reprinted by permission from PSYCHOLOGY AND LIFE, 8th Edition, by Floyd L. Ruch and Philip G. Zimbardo. Copyright © 1971 by Scott, Foresman and Company.

b) "No there's none, there's none, o no there's none, nor can you long be, what you now are, called fair, do what you may do, what, do what you may, and wisdom is early to despair: be beginning; since, no, nothing can be done to keep at bay age and age's evils, hoar hair, ruck and wrinkles, drooping, dying, death's worst, winding sheets, tombs and worms and tumbling to decay; so be beginning, be beginning to despair." (Gerard V. Hopkins, Leaden Echo)

c) "Takes less place. Cat didn't know what Mouse did and Mouse didn't know what Cat did. Cat represented more on the suspicious side that the mouse, Dumbo, was a good guy. He was what the Cat did, put himself with the cat so people wouldn't look at them as comedians. Cat and Dumbo are one and alike, but Cat didn't know what Dumbo did and neither did the Mouse."

d) "So to beseech you as full as for it. Exactly or as kings. Shutters shut and open so do queens. Shutters shut and shutters and so shutters shut and shutters and so and so shutters and so shutters shut and so shutters shut and so shutters and, No and so shutters shut and so and also. And also and so and so and also. Exact resemblance to exact resemblance the exact resemblance as exact as a resemblance, exactly as resembling, exactly resembling, exactly in resemblance exactly a resemblance, exactly and resemblance. For this is so. Because, Now actively repeat at ll...." (Gertrude Stein)

e) "Leaves have to be thought of too. If no leaves, no stone. If leaf didn't have no place, then stone shouldn't have no place. If tree had no place, there wouldn't be any leaves.

"Man was very wise and want more ahead, to his own satisfaction proved to where it takes to destination, also informing it before ever having it. Imagine, people do wonderful things without ever knowing it.

"Gratitude becomes more than itself to prove to one's capabilities to have to oneself without any doubt or undoing in the mind. Something, then again, nothing. If it were, it would be more approved to be than not to be."

What criteria did the students use to differentiate among these quotations in terms of normality/abnormality?

(Other examples: John Lennon's In His Own Write or A Spaniard in the Works, James Joyce's Ulysses and Finnegan's Wake, Bob Dylan's song "Hard Rain's A-gonna Fall," and Dylan Thomas' poem, "Ballad of the Long-Legged Bait."

4. To illustrate the importance of situational appropriateness in determining pathology, have the students consider where on the normal - abnormal continuum they would place the paintings of the mental patient-artist whose work is shown on the rear cover of the Guthrie, 1971 and in McKeachie and Doyle, p. 504.

    a) All four were drawn in a short period of time in response to a request to draw a cat

    b) The four were drawn over a period of years, and by the time the last one was completed, this was the only response he could make to a request that he draw a cat

    The teacher might wish to stress here that a single behavior may be considered creative or pathological in different contexts.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) Citing an example from your own experience or class discussions, describe a problem the structure of whose parts obstructed the discovery of a solution.

B. (For Obj. B) (The nine-dot problem in Activity A of this module will need to be reprinted if this item is to be used.) Describe how the inability to overcome an existing set might interfere with the discovery of a solution to this problem.

C. (For Objs. A and B) (Present to the students a problem referenced in Activities A, B, D, and F of this module but not previously used in class.)

Explain how flexibility of set and the ability to identify and avoid other distractions are necessary to arrive quickly at a correct solution to the problem.

D. (For Obj. C) (Some drawing-completion test of creativity, with sample responses, will need to be reprinted if this item is to be used. Some are referenced in Activity E of this module.) State two criteria that might be used in distinguishing between creative and routine responses.

E. (For Obj. C) In a paragraph or two, devise a test that would help a psychologist to distinguish between individuals who tend to employ routine thinking and those who tend to think creatively. Such a test might involve word associations, drawing-completions, brainstorming, manipulation of building blocks, etc. Be sure to specify what criteria would be used in distinguishing between creative and routine responses.

F. (For Obj. E) True or False

Individuals who score high on creativity tests always score high on intelligence tests as well.

G. (For Objs. A, B, and F) In a paragraph or two, explain why it might prove useful to have persons skilled in problem solving consider "sticky" problems in areas of inquiry in which they have not worked before. What is likely to be gained by having a computer expert tackle a problem of enduring difficulty in, say, biology (such as cancer research)? What might the computer expert be able to do that the biologist could not? How might this help in solving a problem?

H. (For Obj. I) True or False

Motivation which is either too weak or too intense may interfere with problem solving.

I. (Normal - Abnormal Continuum) Cite one characteristic that the following individuals have in common and also one that they do not share:

1. A psychotic patient in a mental hospital
2. A highly creative research scientist

(A sample response might contain the notion that both might have in common a high aptitude for making novel associations. However, those made by the scientist would be more appropriate to a context shared by others in his environment (e.g., pertinent to a research task) than would be those of the psychotic patient.)

UNIT V - DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS

(Includes Modules 5-A, 5-B, 5-C, 5-D, and 5-E)

Module 5-A

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLES

A. Young children tend to be "egocentric" (i.e., focus predominatly on their own desires and perceptions); the ability to empathize with others develops gradually throughout childhood, probably more quickly in some environments than in others.

B. Conflict is not all bad. A certain amount of it is probably necessary to stimulate creativity, innovation, developmental progression, excitement, and self-confidence.

C. Aggressive tendencies develop differently in different people.

II. KEY TERMS

Aggression

Conflict

Types of conflict - Intrapersonal
Interpersonal
Intergroup

Egocentric

Empathy

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. Given examples of interpersonal conflicts, the student will be able to distinguish among them as (1) approach-approach, (2) avoidance-avoidance, (3) approach-avoidance conflicts.

B. The student will be able to illustrate with examples that young children tend to see conflict resolution as a matter of winning or submitting, while older children are more likely to seek compromise solutions.

C. The student will be able to cite examples illustrating that conflict and aggression in children's groups can be influenced by leadership styles (e.g., a style which leads to frustration tends to evoke aggression). (Lewin, Lippit, and White, in McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 573-574.)

D. The student will be able to explain how conflict between children's groups can be resolved by finding "super-ordinate goals." (Sherif's summer camp study, in McKeachie and Doyle, p. 560.)

E. Although it occurs at all stages of life, adolescents in particular are faced with conflicting sets of expectations (i.e., to be dependent and compliant, an obedient child, vs. to be independent and self-directing, an autonomous adult). The student will be able to give some specific examples of conflicting expectations and possible modes of resolution from an intrapersonal as well as interpersonal view.

F. Punitive parents tend to have aggressive (fighting) children. The student will be able to give one possible explanation for the connection (i.e., imitation, frustration-aggression). (See Bandura article in Pronko, pp. 280-287.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) Ask the students to cite examples in their own experience of (1) approach-approach conflict, (2) avoidance-avoidance conflict, and (3) approach-avoidance conflict. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 442-446; Kalish, pp. 268-270; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 229-232.) The teacher may discuss why the avoidance-avoidance conflict is more difficult to resolve than approach-approach. (Hilgard, et al, p. 443.)

B. (For Obj. B) Ask different students to role-play different-aged children. Give them tasks on empathy, etc. from The Development of Communication and Role-Taking Skills in Childhood.[11] Prediction is "older" children should show more empathic ability.

C. (For Obj. B) Divide the students into pairs, role-playing different ages. Have them discuss solutions to some hypothetical problems, giving each one a position (e.g., You are together on a Saturday. A wants to go to a movie; B wants to play in the park. Decide what to do.) Prediction is that older children will compromise. The results should be examined from the standpoint of differences that are attributable to "age" group. Other examples:

1. You are jointly opening a lemonade stand. A wants to charge five cents per cup. B wants to charge fifteen cents per cup. Decide what to do.

2. Two sisters are invited to a friend's party. One of them can't go because she is sick. The other goes, does very well in many games, and wins a large number of prizes. When reunited, the sister who did not attend the party expresses a desire to have some of the prizes for herself. How should they divide them?

   a) The sister who went should get most of them.
   b) The sister who did not go should get most of them.
   c) They should divide them equally.
   d) The sister who went should keep all of them.

   Why?

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[11] John H. Flavell. The Development of Communication and Role-Taking Skills in Childhood. (New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1968)

D. (For Obj. C) Divide the class into two groups. Assign each a leader, one of whom is trained in how to be "autocratic," the other to be "democratic." Have them work on a similar problem-solving task (discussion of a problem and a proposed solution). Then give each student a questionnaire describing some situations where groups are in conflict or one group feels its rights are being violated by another. Ask them for comments and suggestions. Prediction is that the "autocratic" group's suggestions will be more aggressive than those of the "democratic" group. (McKeachie and Doyle, p. 573.)

E. (For Obj. D) Hold a discussion in which the students make lists of conflicting sets of expectations which they feel impinge on them. They may discuss how they view the conflict: reasons for it, how it might be resolved, and how the resolution may or may not constitute a developmental advance.

F. (For Obj. D) Have the students read the Sherif account of the Robbers' Cave Study. (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 559-562.)

G. (For Obj. E and F) Give the students part of the child-rearing questionnaire from Bandura and Walters' Adolescent Aggression[12] and ask them to predict responses of parents of delinquents and nondelinquents.

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[12] Albert Bandura and R. H. Walters. Adolescent Aggression. (New York: Ronald Press, 1959).

DEVELOPMENTAL - IDENTITY

Module 5-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

A product of normal development, beginning in infancy, is a sense of self as a separate entity. This process, involving the individual's view of his unique place in the world, his roles, his status, his relationships to significant others, his self-concept, is initially fragmented and labile. While increasing differentiation and complexity is continuous, at least into adulthood, the critical time for identity integration generally occurs during adolescence and may take the form of a crisis.

II. KEY TERMS

Development, Stages of

Differentiation

Fixation

Identity

Regression

Role Diffusion

Self-Concept

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be sufficiently familiar with at least one theory of development (e.g., Bandura, Erikson, Freud) to be able to describe the relevance of that theory to the concept of identity. (Hilgard, *et al*, pp. 73, 79, and 320; Krech, *et al*, pp. 745-746, 751-752; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 476-477, 479-483.)

B. The student will be able to give some reasons for the general urgency of the identity problem in adolescence. (Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 559-560; Hilgard, *et al*, pp. 65-66; *Annual Readings in Psychology*, '72 edition, pp. 269-282; '72-'73 edition, pp. 278-291.)

C. The student will be able to explain why complexity of the self-concept increases with age and to give examples of such complexity at different levels of maturation. (*Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology*, '72 edition, pp. 269-282; '72-'73 edition, pp. 278-291.)

D. The student will be able to discuss the developmental theories of Piaget, Erickson, and Freud in terms of their use of sequential and irreversible stages. (Hilgard, *et al*, pp. 62-66; *Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology*, '72 edition, pp. 162-172; '72-'73, edition, pp. 162-172.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (General) The teacher may prepare a number of lists, each containing different individual attributes, and distribute one to each student. Have the students write a statement describing what the self-concept of a person with these particular attributes might be. To generate debate, the teacher might prepare only four lists distributing them in such a way that several students receive the same list. Then within-group comparisons can be made following the individual assignment.

B. (For Objs. A and B) The students are divided into groups, each assigned to account for the same hypothetical problem in identity formation (perhaps drawn from literature, as in Module 6-B) from the viewpoint of a particular developmental theorist. In addition, the groups are to suggest, from theory, the ways in which the problem might best be resolved.

C. (For Objs. C and D) Ask the students to consider two age ranges, such as 4-7 years and 13-16 years, and with regard to identity, compare and contrast them in terms of the influence of physical, emotional, mental, and social factors. Is one age span more stressful than the other or merely different? Are certain factors more important in one or both? The attempt here is to promote a discussion of the following proposition: that each age span involves a level of complexity which is affected by these factors proportionately, but in adolescence, pressures and confusions reach a peak. By definition, identity involves concerns with personal goals, values, and commitments: the adolescent stage is the one which most immediately faces the demands and expectations that society places upon adults.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The degree to which a developmental stage is successfully resolved will both indicate the qualitative success of earlier resolutions and determine the extent of successful resolution in subsequent stages. Total failure to achieve resolution within a stage may result in either fixated behavior at that level or in regression to an earlier form of behavior. Such behavior, appropriate at the earlier stage, is considered neurotic at a later stage. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 62-66, pp. 407-408, pp. 453-454)

B. Activities

1. Ask the students to discuss the following examples of fixation: miserliness, rigid orderliness, alcoholism, compulsive over-eating, and narcissism, and to suggest, from the standpoint of psychoanalytic theory, why such behaviors are so resistive to change.

2. Pose the following question to the students: When a baby brother enters the home, why might an older child suddenly revert (regress) to infantile behaviors, and how might such an undersirable change

be handled or prevented? (For example, the practice of not reinforcing these behaviors which are regressive while reinforcing the appropriate older behaviors may be effective in countering the problem.)

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) Describe the development of identity from the point of view of one developmental or personality theorist (i.e., Bandura, Erikson, Freud, etc.)

B. (For Obj. B) Give three reasons why the identity problem is so urgent in adolescence.

NOTE TO TEACHER: A correct response should include at least three of the following:

1. Need to acquire a value system which gives direction to life as an adult
2. Intensification of sexual urges and difficulties in finding socially-acceptable outlets
3. Need to hold parental values in abeyance while testing other values
4. Clash of parental and peer-group values
5. Sudden demand of society for adult behavior
6. Conflicting parental expectations

C. (For Obj. C) Compare Erikson's stages of Trust vs. Mistrust (I) and Initiative vs. Guilt (III) in terms of the complexity of the self-concept at these stages. Why should the complexity of the individual's self-concept increase with age?

D. (For Obj. D) Briefly outline the major steps in development in the formulations of at least two major developmental theorists (i.e., Freud, Erikson, Piaget). Two things which characterize the stages of these theorists are that they are (sequential) and (developmental).

Module 5-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

While there are different views about and different ways of formulating what the newborn brings with him into the world, there is general agreement that man has few built-in or innate patterns of behavior.

II. KEY TERMS

Aggregate

Drive

Instinct

Need

Patterned Behavior

Predisposition

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will learn at least one definition of patterned behavior as applied to inborn responses. (Engle, pp. 32-38; Hilgard, et al, p. 303)

B. The student will be able to cite examples to show that man, unlike many other species, is born with little patterned behavior.

C. The student will be able to discuss the relationships between man's lack of built-in patterned behavior and man's prolonged period of dependency, his need for training and learning, and his adaptability.

D. The student will be able to explain how the question of man's predisposition to such emotions as love and hate raises the issue of the comparative effects of heredity and environment in man's behavior. (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 211-214)

E. The student will be able to name two or more of the theoretical concepts used to characterize built-in patterns of behavior, e.g., instinct, need, imprinting, and to cite and compare some of the examples of behavior used to support each (see Module 2-A).

F. The student will be able to compare two or more of the above concepts with regard to their implications for a built-in predisposition to prejudice. (Cox, pp. 276-277; Hilgard, et al, p. 304)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For all Objs.) Discussion groups, followed by reading, followed by further discussion.

1. The teacher might initiate discussion by posing the large issue of whether there exists in man a predisposition to prejudice.

   a) If the groups feel that the answer is obviously no, the teacher might raise the issue of universal or almost universal prejudices (against inferiors, however defined; against deformity; against strangers). If these are all learned, what is it about people that predisposes them so generally to these prejudices? Or the teacher might wish, in the same vein, to raise the issue of universal or almost universal fears (of darkness; of the abnormal; of snakes) and ask whether such general fearfulness is not in itself a predisposition to prejudice.

   b) If the group feels that the answer to the original question is obviously yes, the teacher should raise issues connected with the paucity of truly universal prejudices and fears and the difficulty of being sure even of these. Depending on the group's ability, the teacher may want to structure the reading which follows the initial discussion by pointing out the importance of precisely defining _predisposition_ (perhaps calling attention to such terms as _inborn pattern of response_, _instinct_, _drive_, _need_, etc.). He may also want the group to examine _prejudice_, _intelligence_, etc. and the way in which discussing these leads to the question of the relative contributions of heredity and environment.

2. Readings may be pursued by individual or small groups with care taken in assignments to ensure coverage of the theoretical concepts bearing on the issue and sufficient diversity among the individuals or groups to promote interest in the discussion which follows the reading. The listed objectives should provide structure for the discussion.

B. (For Obj. D) The teacher should read to the students or have them read the following selection from _The New Yorker_ magazine:[13]

> It keeps coming at us in the program breaks on television - a spot showing black and white children playing joyously and soundlessly together in schoolyards and parks, with, for audio, a sweet voice echoing some old Rodgers and Hammerstein sentiments:
>
> You've got to be taught to hate and fear.
> You've got to be taught from year to year.
> It's got to be drummed in your dear little ear.
> You've got to be carefully taught.

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[13] The "Talk of the Town" section, _The New Yorker_, July 11, 1970. Reprinted by permission; © 1970 _The New Yorker Magazine_, Inc.

It is a message from the New York City Commission on Human Rights, out of "South Pacific." The pictures are charming, the melody is engaging, the thought - we suppose - is hopeful. One wonders, though, whether it is helpful - or, more bluntly, whether the words are, or ever were, true. Granted that bigots are certainly made, not born, our experience has been that it takes very little - sometimes almost nothing - in the way of instruction to produce hate and fear in human beings, young and old. All that it seems to take, as a rule, is a perception of human differences, of otherness, and this is particularly true when the otherness has some physical manifestation, or, as they say nowadays, "visibility." A number of years ago, a friend of ours took his very young daughter, who had been brought up in the country and had seen few people except her parents - then quite young themselves - and her brother and sister, to her first restaurant. After a while, there entered the room a man without a single hair on his formidable head. With terror in her eyes, the child said, "Daddy, why has that man got skin all over his head?" Our friend tried to explain baldness calmly to one who had grown up in a world in which hair was as much a part of the human condition as the head itself. It was not easy. The fear and terror remained - at least until her dear little ear had taken quite a drumming. It can be said, of course, that in a great metropolis people with differing physical characteristics see each other all the time, from childhood on, and that they must therefore be beyond what might be called the shock of non-recognition. The child in question outgrew her fear of baldness (it became commoner around the house as the years went on), visited the city often, and travelled in several parts of the world, yet even in her early teens she was able to believe that there was some profound moral difference between the students in the high school she attended and those in a very similar one seven or eight miles away. To her, for a while, there was no question but that all the basketball players from the other school were cheaters and dirty players, while those in her school were Galahads without exception. Nonsense, her parents said, explaining (teaching) that they all came from similar backgrounds, that the two communities shared the same, not very high morality. In time, she learned, and she is now a passionate non-hater. But she had to be carefully taught not to hate and fear.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to explain that the very nature of the concept of innate behavior pattern is such that it does not lend itself to being placed on a normal-abnormal continuum.

B. Activities

The teacher will probably have to take an active role in making this point clear. Perhaps the students could try to put some human innate behavior, e.g., fear of loud noises or fear of falling on a normal-abnormal continuum, to see that it cannot be done. The teacher may need to point out, during this effort, that there may well be a continuum with regard to responsiveness (i.e., infants differ in the amplitude of their response to a loud noise), but that this bears no direct relation to pathology.

DEVELOPMENTAL - CONTROL

Module 5-D

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Socialization begins soon after birth and continues throughout the individual's life. The socialization process is carried out by many social agents, and the influence of these agents varies with the individual's stage of development.

II. KEY TERMS

Control

Development

Modeling

Reinforcement

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to explain why the need for socialization (control of development) arises from living in a social context.

B. The student will be able to illustrate that, as the individual ages, he passes through stages of varying control over his own development. In early childhood, development is substantially controlled by outside forces (institutions, individuals, etc.). During adolescence, independence increases. In adulthood, the individual's control over his own development reaches a peak. In old age, an individual may experience a substantial loss of competence at managing his own affairs. As a result, it is sometimes necessary for others to assume control.

C. The student will be able to cite examples of ways in which sex roles are taught, paying particular attention to the importance in this process of parents and institutions such as the school, the peer group, and the media.

D. The student will be able to explain the relationship between achievement motivation and the nature of childhood training. (The relatively demanding parent who clearly fosters self-reliance in the child and rewards independent behaviors with affection and approval is teaching the child a need for achievement.) (Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 211-213.)

E. The student will be able to illustrate the importance of assessing the amount of control present in socialization in terms of both planned and unplanned control. (See Activities F and G.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) That society needs to control, to some extent, the development of its children, is expressed clearly and powerfully in the following quotation in Wertheimer (editor), p. 156:*

> "Every civilization
> is only 20 years away
> from barbarism.
> Twenty years are
> all we have
> to accomplish the task
> of civilizing the infants
> who are born into our midst
> each year. These savages
> know nothing of our language,
> our culture, our religion,
> our values, our customs
> of interpersonal relations.
> The infant knows nothing
> about communism, fascism,
> democracy, civil liberties,
> the rights of political
> or ethnic minorities, respect,
> decency, ethics, morality,
> conventions, and customs.
> This barbarian must be
> tamed if civilization
> is to survive."
>
> --Alberta Siegel

The teacher may wish to use this as a launching pad for a discussion of the desirability of social control over childhood development.

The teacher might set up a panel discussion on the related issue of whether or not the particular kinds of control that society currently brings to bear on individual development are, in fact, the most beneficial. One side might defend the view that current socializing forces are good in that they lead the individual toward stability in terms of a job, family, etc., and that this stability has the beneficial effect of freeing the individual to meet higher needs (such as the need for novelty, love, belonging, esteem). A second group might undertake the task of criticizing contemporary socialization by pointing out some of its potentially negative effects. They might argue, for instance, that although current social roles have developed in response to certain needs, this system of roles may prevent an individual from satisfying other, perhaps higher, needs. (For example, the hard-driving businessman who has not time to spend with his family or to pursue hobbies; the young man who feels that his role as a man requires that he refrain from crying, even at times when this might provide needed relief; a student who has been socialized to think of success only in terms of wealth and not in terms of alternatives, such as developing skill in art, music, etc.)

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B. (For Obj. C) Have the students cite examples of ways in which sex roles are taught, beginning with infancy and tracing the child's development into early schooling. To start the discussion, the teacher might offer the following examples of sex-role differentiation:

1. The hospital nursery: Here it is not uncommon for male infants to be treated differently from females. In a recent study (Lewis, 1972), boys were found to receive less handling from their mothers than girls after the age of six months.

2. The parents: In the home, the parents continue the process of establishing a sexual identity for the child. A young boy is likely to be rewarded for displaying behaviors that his parents associate with masculinity. For example, he is rewarded with coddling and approval for playing with soldiers, trucks, baseballs, and footballs and is discouraged from playing with dolls, dollhouses, toy cooking utensils, etc.

3. Nursery school: There is often a separation of sexes in play activities. Boys are often encouraged to build with tools, blocks etc., while girls are encouraged to play with dolls, etc. Ask the students if it is possible to link such examples of sex-role differentiation in infancy and in early childhood with behavioral differences between the sexes in adulthood. (For example, adult women display considerably more physical contact with other women than men do with other men - in American culture.)

   (Note to teacher: In the Lewis study, an attempt is made to relate laboratory observations of children to the social and cultural behavior of adults. Hence, it might provide a good starting point for classroom discussion.)

C. (For Obj. C) From their observations of their own families (if they have younger brothers or sisters), have the students consider instances of parental control over the sexual identity of children. (For example: fathers taking sons to ball games, but not to flower shows; mothers teaching daughters how to cook, bake, maintain a home, but not how to mow the lawn, etc.)

D. (For Obj. C) Have the students discuss the following proposition: "Girls are allowed more latitude than boys in crossing sex-role lines." (Example: It seems to be more acceptable for a young girl to be a "tomboy" than it is for a young boy to be a "sissy.")

E. (For Obj. D) The following research study (Horner, 1969) may be cited: Standard TAT achievement motivation measures were administered to a sample of 90 young women and 88 young men, all university undergraduates. In addition, each student was asked to tell a story based on this clue: "After first-term finals, John (Anne) finds himself (herself) at the top of his (her) medical-school class." The girls wrote about Anne, the boys about John. The stories were scored in terms of "motive to avoid success."

The teacher may then ask the students to predict the results in terms of the percentage of each sex who showed the avoidance motivation (59 girls - over 65% - told stories indicating the motive to avoid success, as compared to 8 boys - less than 10%.)

In a second experiment it was found that the high avoidance motive girls performed better on individual tests than they did on tests in competition with boys (77% of such girls), whereas the low avoidance motive girls performed more like the boys - that is, their scores improved in the competitive situation (93% of such girls).

The teacher may ask the students to discuss these findings in terms of social factors which bring about a need to fail in bright girls. Do the students believe that such failure behavior is still the case with the girls of today?

F. (For Obj. D) Using the Winterbottom (1958) form[14] (see next page), divide the students into two groups. One group is assigned the role of high need-achievement parents, the other group will serve as low need-achievement parents. After each group rates the various items, compare the results and have the class discuss the implications.

G. (For Obj. D) The teacher might wish to pose the students the following question: "To what extent is socialization unintentional and haphazard? To what extent in socialization is deliberate, calculated control exercised?"

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[14] Marian R. Winterbottom. "The Relation of Need for Achievement to Learning Experiences in Independence and Mastery." In H. Preshansky and B. Seidenberg (eds.), Basic Studies in Social Psychology (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), Questionnaire reprinted with permission of the author.

CHILD TRAINING GOALS AND REACTIONS

Please place a check beside each of the following items which you consider to be a goal in the training of your 8-year-old son, and indicate, after the item, the age by which you expect your child to have learned the behavior.

Age

1. To stand up for his own rights with other children. ________
2. To know his way around his part of the city so that he can play where he wants without getting lost. ________
3. To go outside to play when he wants to be noisy or boisterous. ________
4. To be willing to try new things on his own without depending on his mother for help. ________
5. To be active and energetic in climbing, jumping, and sports. ________
6. To show pride in his own ability to do things well. ________
7. To take part in his parents' interests and conversations. ________
8. To try hard things for himself without asking for help. ________
9. To be able to eat alone without help in cutting and handling food. ________
10. To be able to lead other children and assert himself in children's groups. ________
11. To make his own friends among children his own age. ________
12. To hang up his own clothes and look after his own possessions. ________
13. To do well in school on his own. ________
14. To be able to undress and go to bed by himself. ________
15. To have interests and hobbies of his own. To be able to entertain himself. ________
16. To earn his own spending money. ________
17. To do some regular tasks around the house. ________
18. To be able to stay at home alone during the day. ________
19. To make decisions like choosing his clothes or deciding how to spend his money by himself. ________

20. To do well in competition with other children. To try hard to come out on top in games and sports. ________

Which of the following things do you do when your child does well, fulfills your expectations? Please check your three most usual reactions.

1. Kiss or hug him to show how pleased you are. ________
2. Show him you expected it of him. ________
3. Show him how he could have done better. ________
4. Give him a special treat or privilege. ________
5. Tell him what a good boy he is. Praise him for being good. ________
6. Do nothing at all to make it seem special. ________

Which of the following things do you do when your child does poorly, does not fulfill your demands? Please check your three most usual reactions.

1. Just wait until he does what you want. ________
2. Scold or spank him for not doing it. ________
3. Point out how he should have behaved. ________
4. Don't show any feeling about it. ________
5. Show him you are disappointed in him. ________
6. Deprive him of something he likes or expects, like a special treat or privilege. ________

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to cite examples of ways in which parents use (1) modeling and (2) reinforcement to exercise a great deal of control over the development of children. The student will be able to explain that, in some cases, behaviors that have been modeled and/or reinforced by the parents may be considered abnormal when they become primary and maladaptive modes of avoiding the routine responsibilities, stresses, and problems of daily life.

B. Activity

The students might cite examples of behaviors, developed in childhood, which can be seen as normal or abnormal, depending upon their intensity and persistence (e.g., the tendency to "not feel well" when faced with a stressful or difficult task.) The students might then relate the development of these types of behavior to parental modeling and/or reinforcement. (e.g., the mother who always takes to her bed when faced with an unpleasant task or the mother who coddles the child every time he feels unable to go to school because of an illness, when he does not actually have a physical malady.) In the latter case, the child receives a double-reinforcement: (1) he avoids the stress of the unpleasant task, and (2) he receives the pleasure of his mother's attention and affection. The teacher should emphasize the point that such behaviors do not generally reflect conscious or deliberate feigning. Certainly, the neurosis of hypochondria is very real in terms of subjective symptoms and the individual may spend much of his time and money seeking cures, unaware of any gratification from his "poor health."

(NOTE: Avoid "private" disclosures by students by keeping content of discussion very much within the "public" or general realm.) (Hilgard, et al, pp. 471-472.)

Module 5-E

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Traditionally, parents are the dominant figures and primary sources of both satisfactions and prohibitions in the life of the young child. The major influence of parents is that of models, or identification figures, for the child to copy. As a result of expanding technology, the role of parents in the child's development may be undergoing significant change.

II. KEY TERMS

Development

Identification

Model

Role

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to discuss the implications for child development of the following condition: The participation of parents in child-bearing practices may be more nearly equaled and less role-differentiated as a result of changed working conditions, (i.e., where fathers are at home more often and mothers are regularly employed). (cf. Hilgard, et al, pp. 73-76.)

B. The student will be able to support, with examples, the proposition that the control by parents over a child's early development seems to be waning as a result of increased childhood exposure to modeling and guiding experiences which originate outside the family (e.g., television, preschool nurseries, etc.).

C. The student will be able to explain that at present there is greater opportunity than in years past for children to compare differences in life styles, attitudes, and values of persons other than family members who may serve as models. In addition, the student will be able to identify as one source of this increased opportunity the mass media which afford children a diversity of social stimulation.

D. The student will be able to cite reasons for the extension of the adolescent period, invoking the notion that, although the attainment of puberty has been occurring at a progressively earlier age, the assumption of the adult role is postponed. (Hilgard, et al, p. 84.) (Supplementary Reading: Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology, '72 and '72-'73 editions, pp. 129-135, 145-147, 176-178.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Obj. A) The teacher may initiate a discussion among the students as to how sex-role identification might be affected by the father's performing types of nurturant activities traditionally regarded as within the mother's province, such as caring for the children and sharing responsibility for household chores. What are the pros and cons of such a change in the adult male model, particularly in terms of its impact on the developing male child?

B. (For Objs. B and C) The teacher will relate the following research study which was recently conducted:

> Children's acceptance of a message as true was investigated under conditions of agreement and disagreement between the classroom teacher and a televised teacher. The degree of acceptance differed as a function of whether or not the two sources concurred.

The students are asked to suggest and justify the direction of the outcomes.

(NOTE: The results were: (1) when the classroom teacher's message agreed with that of the televised teacher, the credibility of the former was increased, but (2) when the classroom teacher's message disagreed with that of the televised teacher, the children tended to believe the latter, and the credibility of the classroom teacher was sharply decreased. After the students are advised of the results, the discussion of possible reasons might be pursued.)

C. (For Objs. B and C) The teacher makes this statement: "We are strongly influenced by the mass media," to promote a discussion and possible rebuttal by the students. The teacher may then ask them to explain, if they deny that such influence exists, why advertising and motivational research (see The Hidden Persuaders, by Vance Packard) constitute such a lucrative field. Why should industries spend so much money in commercial advertising via magazines, newspapers, radio, and television? Again, why the recent concerns demonstrated by parents who are seeking legislation to control television commercials which are leveled at the child market?

To give specificity to the discussion, students should be assigned to watch some children's television, paying close attention to the ads. (The teacher might use the MCPS Film No. 2609 "The Toys Commercial." It is listed for use in Media Studies and, consists solely of commercials taken from children's television.) They should note the appeals to boys and to girls, consider the basis of each (e.g., the implied power in the portrayal of weapons and vehicles, the sophistication and maturity of the dolls, the identification of the TV celebrity with the product, etc.), and the likelihood of children being impervious to such enticements. It might be well to have this activity and discussion of media influence on children first, then go to consideration of their influence on adults, particularly if the students tend to dismiss the importance of such influence on persons their own age or older.

D. (For Objs. B and C) Ask the students to contrast changes in the attitudes, values, aspirations, and sources of gratification of the residents of a small town 50 years ago and a small town today. How have the mass media and other technological advances such as automation been instrumental? May these factors explain the progressive exodus of young people from small towns to the glamour of big-city life?

E. (For Objs. B and C) The teacher may cite the research demonstrating that children are more frightened by televised soap opera situations than by horror movies (even quite young children realize that the latter are fantasy, while they may mistakenly regard soap operas as exclusively representing "real-life" adult behaviors, where so many situations deal with divorce, infidelity, family conflict, abandonment, etc., and may tend to generalize such situations to their own parents). Ask the student to discuss this with regard to the needs for stability and emotional security in children.

F. (For Obj. D) The teacher will note that the assumption of rights and responsibilities of adulthood seems to be markedly delayed in relation to physical maturity. Recently, however, the voting age has been reduced, and in several states, the purchase of alcoholic beverages has been legalized for eighteen-year-olds.

Question: Does this suggest a reversal trend? If so, how do the students view such a change? Particularly if the response is favorable to that change, are they then willing to accept a decrease in the age where persons accused of crimes may be tried as adults and sentenced to adult punishment? (This illustrates the point that in return for the privileges of adulthood, one accepts total responsibility for one's own behavior and any resultant consequences.) Discussion may be stimulated by having the students read and consider the new age of majority bill (HB 299) passed by the Maryland legislature which lowered the age of majority as of July 1, 1973.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

The student will be able to argue for or against the proposition that technological advances, particularly in the area of mass communication, have made acceptable a greater diversity of behavior, thereby narrowing the range of what is considered abnormal behavior.

B. Activity

Considering the three criteria of abnormality (1) statistical: infrequent in the reference population, (2) social: deviant from society's standards, and (3) behavioral: the degree of impairment (Hilgard, et al, pp. 466-467), the students are asked to discuss whether or not the definition of mental illness has changed over the years. If not, has there developed an increased tolerance for deviant behavior? How has technology been instrumental? Example: Are persons who believe in mystic phenomena such as witchcraft, reincarnation, psychokinesis, clairvoyance, etc., more likely to be regarded as sick or abnormal today or 100 years ago? (Such persons have existed through the centuries and opinions of them have varied, according to time and place. One may well argue either way.) In addition, it would seem paradoxical that while there may be a liberalizing of the tolerance for deviance, which narrows the definition of abnormality, there has been a broadening of the legal concept of abnormality, (viz., a greater range of emotional states is considered an excusing condition in criminal cases).

UNIT VI - PERSONALITY

(Includes Modules 6-B, 6-C, and 6-D)

PERSONALITY - IDENTITY

Module 6-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLES

"Personality" is a useful, comprehensive term for discussing and explaining the behavior of the individual as an organized, enduring, and unique whole. At the same time, because it is such a complex concept, including so many aspects of the individual, it is a difficult term to discuss and investigate. Great care is called for in discussing and investigating personality.

The "self" or "self-concept" refers to the individual's personality as seen by the individual himself.

"Identity" refers to the individual's self-concept in relation to his place in the world, as agent (a doer and maker at work and play), as social being (a person with many and diverse relationships to others), and as valuer and seeker (a person marked by values and goals). It emphasizes the integration of these aspects of self into a physical, psychological, and social holistic view.

II. KEY TERMS

Identity

Personality

Self; Self-concept

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to recognize two of the three elements emphasized in the definition of personality. (Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 468-470.)

B. The student will be able to recognize and give examples of what the sameness is that we are referring to when we speak of an individual as having the same personality over a long period of time. (Hilgard, _et al_, p. 417.)

C. The student will be able to give a definition of self-concept. (Kalish, p. 121; Wertheimer, _et al_, p. 53.)

D. The student will be able to recognize a definition of identity. (Kalish, p. 185; Wertheimer, _et al_, p. 53.)

E. The student will recognize as elements in the definition of identity formation: (1) a lifelong process (2) which is seen as being of salient or even crisis proportions in adolescence, and (3) which results in varying degrees of identity integration among different individuals. (Hilgard, _et al_, p. 416; Krech, _et al_, p. 751.)

F. The student will be able to compare two theories of personality from the standpoint of how they deal with and how much emphasis they place upon adolescent identity conflict. (Krech, et al, pp. 743-753; CRM, Psychology Today pp. 461-481.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A, B, and C) A "Who am I" type of exercise, similar to the one suggested for Module 3-B, Activity A could be used as an introductory exercise for this module as well, particularly for Objectives A, B, and C. Each student could be asked to make a list of the terms he would use to answer the question, "Who am I," as though speaking to a stranger. The teacher could list many of these terms on the board, taking care to get a composite of terms from many students rather than concentrating on a few students, then classifying the terms under such headings as: sex, age, work, interests, values, etc. The teacher might first want to call the class' attention to the whole array of terms on the board and the headings to raise the general question of how we describe ourselves and how we see ourselves.

More specific questions could then focus class attention on: (a) organization and integration as one element of personality; (b) sameness or consistency over time as another; (c) uniqueness as a third. (The teacher, with regard to integration of personality, should caution the class that in their own lists or the list of any individual, inconsistencies may be only apparent. The class, therefore, is not and cannot be involved in diagnosing individuals, but only in searching for what instances may generally be regarded as inconsistencies in personality. Even more important, inconsistencies cannot be regarded per se as bad or maladaptive; they may be a sign of change and thus are likely to be found in adolescent personalities.)

What assumptions are we making when we think we detect inconsistencies or lack of integration in individual personalities? What might be considered inconsistencies in values, in interests, in abilities, or even in physical characteristics? For example, would we see a likely or possible inconsistency between a strong esthetic value and a strong economic value in the same person? Between a strong religious and a strong economic value? Between loving animals and valuing experimental work with animals? Between an interest in stamp collecting and playing baseball? Between outstanding athletic ability and outstanding scholarship? If students are unwilling to view any of these as inconsistency, pointing out that anyone of them may be reconciled in a given individual, two questions still need to be pursued: (a) What would an inconsistency or lack of integration in an individual be like? (b) On what bases do we make general judgments of the likelihood of inconsistencies in personality? The point is that, difficult as this matter of personality integration or consistency may be to judge, we do make such judgments and, further, we feel the results of such inconsistencies in ourselves.

With regard to sameness of personality over time, the class may wish to consider movies, plays, etc. in which a character returns to family and/or friends after many years so changed as not to be immediately recognized. On what characteristics is the change usually based? What characteristics lead to eventual recognition? How like their earlier selves, of two years ago, ten years ago, do the students feel? What has changed? What has remained the same? The same questions can be posed about themselves as projected into the future.

Uniqueness is the opposite of sameness, yet one does not exist without the other. We have a need to be distinct, individual - ourselves - yet to be linked to others through likenesses. What makes individual personalities unique? Are we unique within categories of characteristics, i.e., unique in our interests, our values, etc.? Or is it the way we combine these interests, values, abilities, etc. to form a whole personality? Or is it both? The students should come to see that uniqueness, while much talked about, is a difficult quality to express or explain.

B. (For Obj. C) Following an activity like the one above, the students should have little difficulty with a definition of the self or self-concept as the subject's personality as perceived by him; the view of the person toward himself; the "I" or "me" of which the person is aware, etc. To get a feel for the fluidity of the self, the students might be referred back to the above exercise and asked whether they would respond to "Who am I?" at this point in the very same way they did earlier. Would the earlier discussion lead them to add or change things in a second list of responses? If so, then how fixed is the self? We certainly vary in our awareness of self from moment to moment, at times being little aware of self and at other times quite self-conscious. But over the longer run, we feel a sameness. Can any of the students recall a moment when they became aware of a change in self-concept, a realization of being older, taller, having a change in interest or values? To what do they ascribe the realization?

C. (For Objs. D, E, and F) Preparation for Objectives D, E, and F might begin with the teacher posing the question: If we have the concept "personality" and "self," what need is there for the allied concept, "identity?" What does it express beyond what is in the other two concepts? Before calling for responses, the teacher should present a definition of identity and ask the students to consider the internal struggles of fictional characters such as the following: Holden Caulfield (Catcher in the Rye), Biff Loman (Death of a Salesman), Jimmy Piersall (Fear Strikes Out), Edmund Tyrone (Long Day's Journey Into Night), Eugene Gant (Look Homeward Angel), and Richard Miller (Ah Wilderness).

At this point, the students might be introduced to a statement of Erikson's stages of identity formation (Childhood and Society, or in summary, Hilgard, et al, pp. 65-66). While relating the stages to the definition of identity, the teacher should take the opportunity to point out that this is a theoretical point of view of individual development embedded in psychoanalytic theory. Summaries of other theories of personality development should be introduced for comparative purposes. (See Hilgard, et al, pp. 401-411; Kagan and Havemann, pp. 403-414; CRM, Psychology Today pp. 461-481.)

Which theories deal directly with the concept of identity? Which view adolescence as a time of particular stress and conflict? Is adolescence necessarily such a time? Which theory (or theories) appears to be most valid in its view of adolescence?

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objectives

1. The student will be able to give common examples of behavior illustrating the achievement or lack of achievement of trust, autonomy, competence, integrity, or other major characteristics of identity. (Hilgard, et al, Ch. 20)

2. The student will be able to illustrate his understanding of a continuum of adjustment from positive, highly adaptive behavior at one end to helpless and/or self-defeating behavior at the other end in the following manner: choosing two basic personality variables from the following list: trust, autonomy, competence, integrity, reciprocity in relationships, goal-directedness, presence and control of anxiety, or self-control, the student will be able to appropriately refer three examples of each variable to the normal, neurotic, and psychotic range of the continuum. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 464-465; CRM, Psychology Today Ch. 26.)

3. The student will be able to name three of the symptoms commonly ascribed to schizophrenics and give an example of each symptom. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 473-476.)

B. Activities

1. Activities could begin with some specific examples of abnormal behavior. These could be short case histories and interviews (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 506-514 and pp. 524-539), tapes of interviews (tapes accompanying The Disorganized Personality), or responses to a proverbs test (see Module 4-C). In the course of discussion, the teacher might ask what personality characteristics or variables, common in the behavior of all of us, are being illustrated here, only in extreme form. For example, trust is a characteristic obviously required of all of us in every day social and work situations. The students should be pressed for everyday examples of the need for trust, e.g., that the driver coming out of a side street will stop at the stop sign; that someone is checking the level of the chemicals in the neghborhood swimming pool. Then, what are some examples of extreme or abnormal lack of trust, either from the materials just discussed or from other sources, e.g., people who fear the local water supply has been poisoned, people who feel that they are regularly followed on the streets. Similar examples should be sought for some of the other

variables, e.g., with regard to competence, examples ranging from relatively common feelings of failure and powerlessness to extreme cases of feelings of worthlessness and helplessness; with regard to goal-directedness, examples ranging from common feelings of uncertainty and aimlessness to extreme cases of paralysis and diffusion; etc.

Case studies of aberrant behavior, and any technical terms accompanying them, can be made understandable by asking the students to characterize the patients' behavior in terms of the variables which they have made meaningful with common examples.

2. A supplementary activity with regard to these learnings involves asking the students to describe two or more ideal personalities as indicated by: Erikson's psychoanalytic theory, Rogers' client-centered self-theory, Maslow's holistic-dynamic point of view, Jung's analytical theory, Adler's individual psychology, Fromm's neo-psychoanalytic theory, Sheldon's constitutional theory, etc.

The students might first work alone on their short descriptions of ideal personalities, then discuss and reshape them in an attempt to arrive at a consensus with regard to each theorist. If necessary, the teacher could supply a list of terms helpful in examining each theory for its ideal personality type and in making comparisons among theories in this regard: trust, autonomy, competence, integrity, reciprocity in relationships, goal-directedness, presence and control of anxiety, self-control or self-discipline, awareness, intuitiveness, transcendence, uniqueness, etc.

In the course of discussion, the students should be pressed for everyday examples of behavior illustrating the presence of each characteristic, in large degree or small, in contexts illustrating adaptiveness or maladaptiveness. Building upon this shared understanding of specific components, the students might then consider these questions with regard to ideal personality types: (a) How directly does each of the theories considered indicate an ideal personality? (b) Where the theories considered imply or state an ideal personality, how similar are these ideals? Are there, along with the similarities, important differences among ideal types?

Students interested in pursuing more generally a comparison of theories of personality might be given, in addition to the dimension of explicitness of ideal personality statement, the following dimensions to help with their comparison: (a) the degree of stress on heredity or environment; (b) the importance attributed to early childhood experiences; (c) past-orientation versus future-orientation in the theory's explanation of personality; (d) use of one or two basic motives versus many motives or versus a hierarchy of motives; (e) degree of emphasis on the wholeness and uniqueness of personality; (f) degree of importance assigned to self-concept in explaining personality.

Module 6-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Defense mechanisms are largely unconscious aspects of character structure. They have the enduring quality of habitual responses in unfamiliar or other difficult situations and, as such, possess advantages and disadvantages for the individual. They help the individual to cope efficiently and defend against difficulties. At the same time, they are responses shaped more by the most frequent or important needs of the individual rather than by the requirements of a particular situation. Two defense mechanisms which often contribute to prejudice are displacement and projection. (Cox, pp. 324-327; Hilgard, et al, pp. 454-462; Kalish, pp. 285-293; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 385-393.)

Note to Teacher: Defense mechanisms are inferred psychological constructs. Psychologists differ as to just which patterns of behavior qualify as defense mechanisms, and thus as to how many defense mechanisms there are. A fairly inclusive list follows:

compensation

fantasy

displacement

identification

projection

rationalization

reaction formation

regression

repression

II. KEY TERMS

Defense Mechanism

Displacement

Projection

Repression

Scapegoating

Unconscious

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to define and cite examples of defense mechanisms in general, and displacement and projection in particular, from his own experience. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 454-460; Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 561-567; Kalish, pp. 285-293.)

B. The student will be able to describe, with regard to one or more of the defense mechanisms he has cited, one way in which the defense mechanism can be advantageous. (Hilgard, et al, p. 460; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 392-398.)

C. The student will be able to describe with regard to one or more of the defense mechanisms he has cited, one way in which the defense mechanism can be disadvantageous. (Hilgard, et al, p. 460; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 392-398.)

D. The student will be able to cite an example of the use of a defense mechanism leading to a prejudicial conclusion.

E. The student will be able to state why the mechanisms most directly related to scapegoating are displacement and projection. (Cox, pp. 326-327; Engle, pp. 334-344; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 384, 386.)

F. The student will be able to discuss why the individual ordinarily has little control over the use of his defense mechanisms.

IV. ACTIVITIES

(All Objectives)

A. Give the student a problem and ask him to tell how a person could handle the problem by the use of at least two defense mechanisms (besides those of displacement and projection) such as sublimation, compensation, etc. For this activity and the one which follows, there are good examples in Kalish, pp. 285-293, which the teacher may use both to illustrate defense mechanisms and to get the students started on making up their own illustrative anecdotes.

B. Have the student make up a case study and then be able to discuss the defense mechanism used. He should note whether he feels the defense mechanism is used adaptively or maladaptively and support his conclusion.

C. Discuss the question "Should a person strive to encounter reality directly at all times; i.e., without recourse to a defense mechanism?" (Cox, p. 324)

D. To clarify defense mechanisms and the ways in which they operate, role-playing may prove useful. Have eight students volunteer for some role-playing. These students leave the room. The teacher should go with them to explain what they are to do. First they get in pairs. Then each pair is assigned two of the defense mechanisms. They are instructed to make up two skits, one for each of the mechanisms. Give them about 15 minutes to do this. While they are working, the teacher should go back into the room, list the mechanisms on the board, and discuss each one briefly with the class. The role players are then called back into the room to put on the skits. Each pair puts on a skit, and after going around one time, starts over with each pair giving the second skit. The job of the class is to guess which mechanism each skit represents. (Adapted from the "Gimmickry" page of Periodically, Volume II, Number 6.)

Note to teacher: A response, even when its context makes clear how it relates to defense mechanisms, may represent more than one defense mechanism. The more precise question usually is which defense mechanism appears to be primarily involved in the response.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to distinguish between suppression and repression in everyday habits and activities, and give one or more examples of each.

B. Activities

1. Following the reading of a particularly charged interaction between some characters in literature (e.g., a passage from the last act of O'Neill's Long Day's Journey Into Night), ask the students to identify examples of suppression and repression in the characters' behavior.

2. Ask the students to consider the explanations commonly given for continuing the habit of smoking, for overeating in the face of a doctor's advice against it, for not using the safety belt and/or harness when traveling by car, etc.; and discuss the explanations in terms of the degree of awareness they indicate of the dangers involved.

3. Ask the students to discuss ways in which the use of a specific defense mechanism may be advantageous (adaptive) or disadvantageous (maladaptive). Below are examples of such as applied to two defense mechanisms, suppression and repression. In discussing other defense mechanisms, the students might formulate "case studies" of their own.

The chart in the Hilgard text is particularly useful in discussing defense mechanisms in terms of an adaptive-maladaptive continuum. (Hilgard, et al, p. 460)

Note to Teacher: This chart may be confusing if not supplemented by reference to the text. For example, "suppression" and "repression" are not on the same level of consciousness.

SUPPRESSION

advantageous disadvantageous

Example of Advantageous Use of Suppression:

Harold is taking his SAT test. He has worked hard for several years in high school because attending the college of his choice is extremely important to him. Therefore, it is essential that he does well on this test. During the exam, it occurs to him that he has not yet purchased a birthday present for his mother. He is concerned because (1) he does not know what to buy for her and (2) his family has planned a party for that afternoon. After reflecting on this for a moment, he suddenly becomes aware that he is using time to think about his mother's birthday that might be better utilized at that time in concentrating on the test he is taking. He therefore suppresses the thought of his mother's birthday present - that is, he stops attending to it - until the circumstances are appropriate for that thought and refocuses his attention on the test. In this case, we would say that suppression is adaptive because it helps to avoid distracting thoughts that would, if not suppressed, obstruct the achievement of a worthwhile goal (performing well on the test).

Example of Disadvantageous Use of Suppression:

After completing his exam, Harold again addresses the problem of what gift to buy for his mother. He thinks for a minute about this and realizes that he has no idea of what would be an appropriate gift. So he quits thinking about it and goes off to play ball. In this case, we would say that suppression is maladaptive because it inhibits the ability to achieve a worthwhile goal (getting a gift).

Have the students discuss the following examples of repression and have them place each on a continuum in terms of the advantages and disadvantages of repression.

REPRESSION

advantageous disadvantages

Example of Advantageous (Adaptive) Repression

A few months ago, Raymond caused an automobile accident in which several persons were killed. He feels personally responsible for these deaths, and as a result, he experiences intense guilt feelings. Today he is asked about the incident and responds that he does not remember what happened. He claims that he recalls having driven his car that day and remembers having approached the location at which the accident occurred. But he claims to have no recollection of what happened immediately before, during, or immediately after the accident. Let us assume that he truly does not remember (i.e., that the memory has been repressed) and that his lapse in memory is not due to any physiological cause, such as a blow on the head, etc.

For Raymond the periodic recurrence of the memory of the tragedy would be an exercise in self-inflicted torture. Continually mulling over the accident would serve no useful purpose since there is no opportunity to undo what has been done. However, through repression, the unpleasant memory is removed from his consciousness. As a result, Raymond is more free to employ his mental faculties in other, more productive ways. In this case, repression may be said to be adaptive.

Example of Disadvantageous (Maladaptive) Repression:

Mrs. Jessup lives alone in Iowa. Her only son Johnnie was recently brought home dead from Vietnam after nearly completing his two-year tour of duty. Although Mrs. Jessup attended the funeral, she now denies the fact that Johnnie is no longer alive (i.e., represses the knowledge that he is dead). Instead, she saves all his clothes, maintains his room, and saves newspaper clippings for him as if he were going to return home after being discharged from the Army. Her repression is so complete that, for years, she refuses to visit relatives and friends in other cities for fear of not being at home when Johnnie arrives.

In this case, repression has the maladaptive aspect of preventing Mrs. Jessup from pursuing a productive life in the context of her situation. She alienates others by continually referring to her son in conversation as if he were still alive, and becomes increasingly restricted in her social interactions because of her need to maintain the repression.

As an activity, have the students formulate hypothetical case studies of their own to illustrate other defense mechanisms and discuss the advantages and disadvantages in each case.

Note to Teacher: The value placed upon an individual's use of a defense mechanism, as with the value of any activity, is a matter of context, goals, and life style. It follows that the question of the advantageousness of the use of suppression or repression in any particular case is likely to be, and should be, a matter for debate among the students.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Objs. A and B) Choose one of the following defense mechanisms and describe a situation in which it might be advantageous:

1. Projection
2. Repression
3. Reaction formation
4. Sublimation

B. (For Obj. C) When an individual exhibits rationalization, it is possible that the outcome might be beneficial. For example, in his search for reasons, an individual may lay the groundwork for rational conduct in the future. How could rationalization be disadvantageous to an individual?

C. (For Objs. C and D) The following two questions are intended for students who are somewhat adept at essay writing.

1. Select one defense mechanism and describe ways in which it can be
   a) advantageous (adaptive)
   b) disadvantageous (maladaptive)
2. Select one defense mechanism and compose a hypothetical case study which illustrates it. (For examples of how this might be handled, see the "case studies" included in Activity 3 of Section V of this module.)

D. (For Obj. D) Match the following defense mechanisms with the list of situations:

Defense Mechanisms: Repression, rationalization, projection, dissociation, compensation

1. The girl, who was not invited to a dance, said she would not have gone if asked because she did not like some of the people who were going to be there.
2. Failing to make the high school football team, Joe engages in excessive study to achieve high grades.
3. An amnesia victim is unable to recall specific actions that might prove embarrassing to himself.
4. "My tools are dull, no wonder it's a poor job."
5. "My mother didn't wake me."
6. Young boy to mother: "I hit him because he was going to hit me."

E. (For Obj. E) Butch has just asked Bettie Lou for a date and has been turned down. Fuming mad, he walks down the hall and encounters George, the mild-mannered scholar of the sophomore class. He moves over just enough to bump into George's arm and knock the books from his hand. At the same time, he snarls at George, "Watch it." Butch's behavior toward George is an example of ____________________. What two psychological mechanisms is Butch exhibiting? (displacement and projection)

F. (For Obj. A, Normal-Abnormal) Joanne is a secretary in a small company. Lately she has found that her boss is making many unreasonable demands on her and often seems dissatisfied with the work she does. Although any secretary in such a situation might get very angry or upset, Joanne does not express any anger toward her boss.

Give two psychological mechanisms which could account for Joanne's behavior. Choose one of these mechanisms to help you explain how Joanne might react when her close friends and relatives question her about her job.

G. (For Obj. A, Normal-Abnormal) Because he worked so hard for the audition, John's drama teacher chose him as the male lead in the senior class play. The opening night of the play is now two weeks away. The other students involved in the production have enjoyed working with this teacher and have worked hard for her. John, on the other hand, has failed to learn his lines and has repeatedly shown up late for rehearsals. The teacher has now decided to replace John with a new male lead.

1. If John reacts by ripping up his script and leaving, this may be an example of the psychological mechanism of:

   a) projection

   b) playfulness

   *c) displacement

   d) denial

2. John might react by complaining that it is the female lead who is too lazy to learn her lines and she's the one who is making mistakes. This would be an example of:

   a) repression

   b) oppression

   c) displacement

   *d) projection

3. John might react by blaming his lateness on the girls in his history class, whom he claims purposely ask long questions at the end of the class period. If other people from John's history class are usually on time for rehearsals, we might interpret John's behavior as:

   a) reaction formation

   *b) rationalization

   c) projection

   d) displacement

4. John might react by getting very angry with the prompter and blame him for the mix-ups in lines. This might be an example of:

   a) denial

   b) regression

   c) selective awareness

   *d) projection

5. If John reacts by telling everyone that he is happy to leave the play since he never really wanted to be in it anyway, this might be an example of:

   a) selective awareness

   *b) reaction formation

   c) sublimation

   d) impulse diversion

PERSONALITY - CONTROL

Module 6-D

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

In formulating issues with regard to the individual's control over his own behavior, one should be aware of the theory of personality underlying the formulation of those issues. In this regard, a most important distinction lies between the behaviorist (environmental) and dynamic (intrapsychic) theories.

II. KEY TERMS

External Control

Internal Control

Personality

III. LEARNINGS

A. The student will be able to describe and contrast two or more personality theories (at least one behaviorist and one dynamic) in terms of how the theorist assigns to the individual control over his own behavior. (Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 471-479; Krech, pp. 744-752; Hilgard, pp. 407-412)

B. The student will be able to describe how an advocate of each of the above theories would characterize the same instance of control.

C. The student will be able to identify various instances where one tends to take either an internal or an external view in assigning control over an individual's behavior, illustrating how the assignment of control in various situations is sometimes based upon adherence to a behaviorist theory and at other times to a dynamic theory.

D. The assignment of control over an individual's behavior is complex. The student will be able to elucidate this complexity by describing how various situational factors (e.g., age, commonness of behavior) affect the determination of the location of control.

(Note to Teacher: The assignment of control is made more complex and difficult because it involves values, religious and philosophic views as well.)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (Introductory to all of the objectives) It might be helpful to introduce the students to the topic of control by familiarizing them with the notion of internal vs. external control. The "Locus of Control Test"* (see following pages) will demonstrate that people differ as to whether they view themselves as controlled internally (feeling their decisions are important in determining the course of their life) or externally (believing outside forces are most influential). From this awareness, the students can then consider different theories as they relate to the issue of control.

Tell the students to read the instructions carefully, then signal them to begin after all have read the directions. Score the test by giving one point for each external choice made. (See score sheet below.) The lower the score, the more the individual views himself as internally controlled.

1.	a	7.	a	13.	a	19.	a
2.	b	8.	b	14.	a	20.	a
3.	b	9.	b	15.	a	21.	b
4.	b	10.	b	16.	a	22.	b
5.	a	11.	b	17.	a	23.	a
6.	a	12.	b	18.	b		

(See Rotter, J. B., "External Control and Internal Control," Psychology Today, June, 1971.)

B. (For Obj. A) Examine two or more personality theories in terms of how each assigns the individual control over his own behavior. This examination should include a discussion about the assumptions which determine the location of control.

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*Rotter, J.B. "Generalized Expectancies of Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement." Psychological Monographs 80(1966):1. Copyright 1966 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted by permission.

Name: ______________________________ Class: ________________ Score: ______

Date: ______________________________ Sex: Male
Female

Instructions: This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select the *one* statement of each pair (*and only one*) which you *believe* to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: Obviously there are no right or wrong answers.

For each pair of statements put the letter (a or b) of the statement with which you agree on the line to the left of the statements. Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer for *every* choice. Put the letter of the statement on the blank line to the left of the number whichever statement you choose to be more true.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the *one* you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item *independently* when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

Stop here. Do not go any further until told to do so by your teacher.

______1. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

______2. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

______3. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

______4. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

______5. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

______6. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

______7. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

______8. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

______9. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

______10. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

______11. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

______12. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

______13. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

______14. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

______15. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
b. There really is no such thing as "luck."

______16. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

______17. a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

______18. a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

_____19. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

_____20. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

_____21. a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.

_____22. a. What happens to me is my own doing.
b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

_____23. a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

C. (For Obj. B) Present the class with various situations:

smoking
overeating/dieting
getting high grades
shoplifting
doing a favor for someone
getting to work (class) on time
driving fast
heavy drinking

Examine each from the standpoint of the behaviorist and the dynamic theories. Why does each theorist assign control for this behavior to within or outside the individual? Note that the behavior can be explained plausibly by both theories. For example, while a Freudian might suggest that overeating was largely attributable to the individual's fixation at the oral stage or to the satisfaction of some drive (internal control), a Skinnerian might say that such behavior was learned and positively reinforced by the person's mother - "good boys eat all that's on their plate" (external control). For a related discussion on the development of conscience, see Sanford and Wrightsman, pp. 480-482.

D. (For Obj. C) Using the above situations and suggesting new ones, have the class discuss and arrive at two lists of behaviors: those behaviors for which we tend to assign control internally, and those where we tend to assign control externally. For instance, we might assign control internally for such behaviors as choosing among several items in a cafeteria, or a three-year-old's fighting to retrieve his toy truck from a friend. On the other hand, we might assign control externally in the case of someone starting to smoke, or a young child saying "thank you" after receiving a gift. Discuss the reasons why such determinations were made in terms of the particular personality theory that is being used. For example, we might take an internal view with regard to cheating because we tend to ascribe to a dynamic theory in this case, but take an external view of control in the case of following an order in the army because we ascribe to a more behaviorist view in this situation.

E. (For Obj. D) To delineate some factors which influence the location of control of behavior, ask the students to determine where they would locate control for the behavior of the individuals in the examples below.

(Consider separately the individuals in each example.) A voting record could indicate where most of the class located control for the behavior, as well as the difficulties in making such a decision. Discuss with the students the reasons they have for making their determinations. (See Activity F.)

1. Mary, a 13-year-old, was arrested for shoplifting, along with three of her friends. "The others decided to do it," she explained to her mother, "so I went along, too."
2. Martin Luther King, Jr., believing that the law permitting blacks to ride only in the back of a bus was unconstitutional, demonstrated his conviction by sitting in the front of a public bus. Others joined him in his protest.
3. Joan, age 3, was found lighting the matches that her 25-year old uncle had allowed her to play with.
4. David saluted the flag as it passed by during a parade. His young son did the same.

This exercise could also be accomplished by discussing the behavior of fictional characters. See In Cold Blood, The Crucible, A Raisin in the Sun for example.

F. (For Obj. D) The above discussions should naturally lead to an increasing awareness of the complexity of locating control for an individual's behavior internally or externally. The students will be able to describe the factors which influenced their determination of the locus of control in the above situations. (See Activities C and E.) Factors that can be considered are:

1. Age: the degree of control over his behavior that we assign a 3-year-old, a 13-year-old, a 33-year-old, a 73-year-old. Does this control increase over time, or do we tend to assign less control to the individual when the person is very young or old?
2. Acceptability of behavior: Does the location of control differ if the behavior is considered good or bad? The initial determination of the location of control for the examples in Activity E might be helpful in illustrating this point.

3. Commonness of behavior: To what extent do we tend to locate control internally if others also perform the behavior, as opposed to the case when an individual's behavior is idiosyncratic? Consideration of the degree of conformity to styles of fashion might be an illustrative example. Does the location of control differ if someone is following the common style of dress as compared to an individual whose dress is unusual or novel? See Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology, 1972-73, pp. 331-338 which explores heroin use among adolescents, particularly in reference to peer pressure.

4. Influence of the group: What is the influence on the determination of the locus of control if the behavior is performed as part of a group instead of alone? Examples illustrating the complexity of the issue are behavior of an individual who is participating in a demonstration (peaceful or otherwise), the incident of the woman in New York City who was stabbed to death while at least 38 people watched without calling the police or attempting to stop the attacker, or the behavior of a member of a group which is attacking someone else. See also Wertheimer (editor), pp. 87-92, for a study of both the positive and negative effects of a group upon an individual's behavior.

5. Legitimacy of authority: Does the location of control for an individual's behavior differ if we perceive the behavior is conforming to the demands of legitimate authority? Does the determination change if the demands of a legitimate authority are illegal? Consider the issues of obedience to laws and the Nuremberg trials. See also the Milgram study in Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology, 1972-73, pp. 202-208.

   It should be noted that these factors sometimes work towards assignment of control over the particular behavior within the individual and at other times towards taking an external view of control.

G. (For Objs. C and D) One situation that might illustrate clearly the changes in the location of control of an individual's behavior would be that of taking a person's life in the following instances:

1. In a war, where the person is the enemy
2. In cold blood
3. In self-defense
4. Accidentally

A discussion might focus on where the class would assign control (externally or internally) and why. Discuss what factors are significant in any change in the location of control from one instance to the next. (See Activity F.) Explore how the behaviorist and dynamic views influenced the class in their determination of the location of control as well as how each theory might assign control in the above situations.

H. (For Obj. A) Contrast the theories of B. F. Skinner and Victor Frankl (Man's Search for Meaning) in terms of how each assigns control of an individual's behavior. These two views illustrate the polarization between an external approach and an internal view.

I. (For Obj. A - For the student who has a working knowledge of several theories of personality) Choose one or several situations and ask the student to describe how each of the following theorists would assign control for the individual's behavior:

Skinner
Freud
Maslow
Frankl
Erikson
Adler

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will be able to explain how the behaviorist and dynamic theories of personality differ in their view of abnormality.

B. Activity

Present the following two (or other appropriate) cases to the students. Ask the students to describe how the behaviorist theory of personality was utilized in describing the abnormal behavior in the first case, and how the dynamic theory was applied in the second. Using these or other cases (see Kisker, Krech, McKeachie), the teacher might wish to have the students explain the abnormal behavior in a single case in terms of a viewpoint other than the one employed in the original description, or in terms of both the behaviorist and dynamic theories where no viewpoint was given with the description.

1. Mary was 37 years old, five feet four inches tall, and weighed only 47 pounds. She was admitted to the hospital because she was dying of starvation.

   At the age of 11 Mary weighed 120 pounds and was considered chubby. Her weight remained at about 120 pounds until she was married at the age of 18, at which time her family physician warned her that she was sexually underdeveloped and that her marriage might "make this worse, or might make it better." The couple lived in California where her husband was in the military service. Since this was during World War II when living conditions were not very pleasant, they lived in a small crowded apartment with no facilities for cooking and had to eat their meals in cheap restaurants. Mary was also having trouble adjusting to the sexual aspects of married life and was very homesick. Consequently, she made the long trip from California to Virginia several times to visit her family. After the first few months of her marriage, she started eating less and began losing weight at an alarming rate. A physician suggested that if she lost any more weight she should return home and live with her family, which she did. The doctor had provided her with a legitimate reason for doing what she really wanted to do. She could escape from her unhappy marriage and at the same time be rewarded by returning to the comfortable environment of her family.

At this point we can only speculate, but it seems very plausible that Mary ate poorly because she was rewarded by being able to escape from her marriage and return to her family home without suffering criticism. You should not think that Mary was consciously trying to lose weight.

When Mary returned home she continued to lose weight. Probably because of her eating problem, she received more attention than she had prior to her marriage. If a person eats normally, no one pays much attention to him. However, if he refuses to eat, he will receive quite a bit of attention. Friends and relatives will talk to the person who eats poorly and try to coax him to eat more. It is very rewarding to have someone pay attention to us. It is quite plausible that Mary continued to eat poorly because people paid more attention to her under those circumstances than when she ate normally. Once again, we see that rewards might have been a major factor affecting the way that Mary behaved.[15]

2. Hilda J. was an 18-year-old girl who was referred to a psychiatric clinic because of marked anxiety centering around sexual conflicts involving her relationship with her father.

   At the beginning of the interview, Hilda pulled at her hands, sighed repeatedly, shifted uncomfortably in her chair, and had difficulty speaking because of her tenseness. Eventually she told a story which revolved for the most part around her father. She said that he had told her that her mother had frustrated him sexually. At another time he kissed her, but she denied any overt sexual activities with him. She admitted having frequent dreams and nightmares, most of which involved the father. She repeated one dream in which the mother was in the kitchen making supper, and the father tried to get the patient to give him a knife so he could stab the mother. She also had dreams of old men lurking in the street.

   Hilda's anxiety became so great that she insisted that her mother sleep with her. Before going to bed, she went through a ritual of barricading the bedroom door, hanging a cloth over the door knob, and forcing the cloth into the keyhole with the point of a butcher knife. She could sleep as long as her mother kept an arm over her, but she awakened and would be terrified when her mother moved her arm away. At the same time, Hilda was frightened by the mother and occasionally hesitated to eat anything the mother had prepared. The girl sometimes was so fearful that she remained awake all night in order to watch her mother.

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[15] Donald L. Whaley and Richard W. Malott, Elementary Principles of Behavior (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, © 1971), pp. 3-4. Reprinted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

The most striking element in this case is the dramatic demonstration of the unresolved Oedipal relationship and the anxiety it generated. The problem has been intensified by the father's seductive action toward his daughter and by the passive reaction of the mother to the situation. The girl has deeply ambivalent feelings about both her father and her mother. In spite of her often repeated fear and hatred of the father, she is preoccupied with thoughts of him both in her waking fantasies and her dream life. (From Kisker, pp. 251-252.) *

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*From The Disorganized Personality by George W. Kisker. Copyright 1972. Used with permission of McGraw Hill Book Company.

UNIT VII - SOCIAL INFLUENCES

(Includes Modules 7-A, 7-B, 7-C, 7-D, and 7-E)

SOCIAL - CONFLICT

Module 7-A

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLES

A. The individual behaves differently in groups than when alone, in part because the individual's behavior in the group is reflected back to him and thus accentuated or otherwise modified. (Wertheimer ed., 1970, pp. 201-249; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 583.)

B. Conflict cannot continue indefinitely without some sort of resolution, be it constructive or destructive.

II. KEY TERMS

Conflict

Mob

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to illustrate how the individual may conform to behaviors of the group as a function of his own needs and his fears of rejection. (Kalish, pp. 329-330)

B. The student will cite examples which illustrate that, in many instances, there is a conflict between the individual's desire for nonconformity and society's need for conformity. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 465-466)

C. The student will be able to explain why a soldier, for instance, may carry out orders which are inconsistent with his moral convictions. (McKeachie and Doyle, p. 583)

D. The student will be able to relate the degree of an individual's deviant behavior to the group content, ranging from a small intimate gathering to a rioting mob, as a function of increasing anonymity. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 518-519)

E. The student will be able to relate the willingness of an individual to participate in acts which are harmful to others to the perceived social and/or physical distance, (i.e., they will understand that one's sense of personal involvement and responsibility decreases as distance increases). (Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology '72, pp. 181-186; '72-'73 edition, pp. 202-208)

F. The student will realize that resolution can be achieved in any number of ways from victory in war (aggression), to peaceful negotiation (compromise), to a simple dispersement of a group (withdrawal). (Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology '72, pp. 337-338; '72-'73 edition, pp. 346-347)

G. The student will understand that a high level of emotionality in a mob cannot be sustained. Persistent attempts at some form of resolution are therefore inevitable. He will be able to explain this through use of information obtained from readings about stress tolerance. (Kalish, pp. 278-300)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A and B) Discuss the violence which took place in West Side Story in terms of the learnings mentioned above.

B. (For Objs. A, B, and D) Consider the following questions with the class: When does an orderly crowd of demonstrators turn into a mob? What does this do to an individual in the group?

C. (For Obj. B) Ask the student to cite from his own experience instances in which there has been a conflict between his individual desire and what is expected of him by external groups. (Example: mode of dress of his own choosing as opposed to that preferred by parents, peers, or school)

D. (For Obj. C) Discuss the Calley case (and other cases of war crimes such as the Nuremburg Trials). Explain Lt. Calley's behavior and the behavior of the others involved. (Wertheimer ed., 1970, pp. 92-95)

E. (For Objs. D and E) Pose the question: "What relevance does the use of uniforms in organizations have to anonymity within a group?" The use of hoods in the Ku Klux Klan would be an extreme example.

F. (For Obj. E) Ask the students to consider the following situations, in each case focusing on the effect of distance on one's sense of personal involvement and responsibility for a given act.

1. Direct assault on another person
2. Regulating the computer which drops the bombs from a B-52
3. Developing a device in a laboratory which has military potential

G. (For Obj. F) The students should read and discuss studies dealing with the effects of stress. (McKeachie ahd Boyle, pp. 521-525; Krech, et al, pp. 603-604; Hilgard, et al, p. 48; Cox, p. 341; Kalish, pp. 367-368)

H. (For Obj. F) Have the students discuss the effects of the stress of the group on the individual's own stress level.

I. (For Obj. G) Ask the student to cite examples of leaders who were able to excite emotionality in crowds (e.g., Martin Luther King, Mark Anthony, Billy Graham, Janis Joplin, and various rock groups). What emotions did each arouse? How were they related to conflict?

J. (For Obj. G) Describe each in terms of the amount of emotionality involved.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

Individuals vary in the degree to which they are moved in group situations to behavior uncharacteristic of them. The student will be able to give three examples of this accentuation of feeling and/or behavior engendered by group interaction - one falling within what he considers to be the normal range of susceptibility, one more extreme, and one indicative of pathology - and defend his continuum.

B. Activities

1. The students should consider the following examples (and any others which occur to them) of group-influenced behavior, place them on a continuum with regard to degree of susceptibility to group influence, and defend their placements. In explaining why they placed a given example at the beginning, middle, or end of the continuum, they should consider such factors as bizarreness of the individual's behavior in the group, contrast with the individual's nongroup behavior or degree of loss of control apparently involved. If they have worked with Module 2-E, Motivation - Man and Technology, they might review it prior to undertaking this exercise.

    a) John, never seen to dance before, joins the dancers at a rock concert and dances wildly.

    b) A middle-aged woman attends a group encounter session. As the other members are discussing rather personal matters, she becomes immobile and unable to speak.

    c) Tim, always a most obedient and respectful student, laughs loudly with the rest of his class when the teacher makes an embarrassing slip of the tongue.

    d) The activities of some of the boys in Lord of the Flies by William Golding

    e) Betsy, a 13 year-old who has been forbidden by her parents to have her ears pierced, goes to a party where all the girls take part in piercing one another's ears.

    f) The activities of the girls in The Crucible, by Arthur Miller

    g) The involvement of the followers of Charles Manson in murder

    h) Louis, a quiet student who has never been involved in drug-taking, takes a dare at a party and swallows an unknown substance thought to be a barbiturate.

    i) The young people involved in playing "chicken" in the movie Rebel Without a Cause

j) Bill, who had for a time been heavily involved with drugs and has now abstained for a year, goes to a party at which he knows there will be drug taking and becomes habituated again.

2. The students are asked to read and consider the experiment described in Wertheimer (ed.), 1970, pp. 62-70 or in Annual Editions: Readings in Psychology '72, pp. 180-186 or '72-'73 edition, pp. 202-208, in which subjects who believed they were administering shocks to a "victim" obeyed orders against their will and with only verbalized protest. A number of these subjects demonstrated mounting tension by inappropriate, frequently bizarre behaviors, and displayed a curious disassociation between word and action. Since, on later interview, the subjects said that the task had been extremely disagreeable and contrary to their sensibilities, why did they persist? What were the ways in which this inconsistency was handled? Is it legitimate to characterize these subjects as frankly sadistic or otherwise abnormal? Are these findings peculiar to these particular subjects or are they a function of context and our socialization process?

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) Sue moved to Podunk only three months ago. When she first arrived, she was very lonely and found it hard to make friends. Gradually she has been accepted by some of the most popular girls in her class, although none of them has become truly a close friend. Today Sue has found out that several of these girls go shoplifting regularly, just for the fun of it. They ask her to go along, and she agrees. Why might Sue have agreed to do something that most people think is wrong? Explain your answer in terms of the relevant psychological concepts.

B. (For Obj. B) Give one example of a situation where the social need for conformity conflicts with the individual's desire for nonconformity. In the case of the example you choose, cite ways in which the society may deal with the problem of nonconformity, both by preventing undesirable behavior and by providing acceptable alternative outlets.

C. (For Obj. C) A soldier in battle may carry out orders which go against his moral convictions. What psychological factors might account for his behavior in this situation? Would he be as likely to behave in the same way if he were acting alone rather than as part of a group? Why or why not?

D. (For Obj. D) A person would probably be most likely to go on a rock-throwing spree in his own neighborhood if:

1. He has just been standing in a small crowd listening to a political speech.

*2. He is a part of a large angry mob.

3. He has just had a few beers with a friend.

4. He is feeling angry at his boss.

Alternative question for students skilled at exposition:

Write an essay explaining the following proposition: The likelihood that an individual will perform antisocial acts varies with the group context as a function of increasing anonymity within the group.

E. (For Obj. E)

1. In an experiment, we might expect that a student subject would have the least compunction about administering electrical shocks to:

   a) A fellow college student

   b) A personal friend

   *c) A construction worker

   d) A high school student

2. In the above experiment, the subject would be most willing to administer the shocks if his "victim" were:

   a) Hidden from view by a large screen

   b) Sitting in the next room, but visible to the subject through a two-way mirror

   c) Standing in a glass-enclosed booth in the middle of the room

   *d) In the next room only a few feet from the subject, but out of his sight

   e) Sitting directly across from the subject in full view

F. (For Obj. F) "Suppose they gave a war and nobody came." This is one way in which a conflict between nations might be resolved. Discuss three ways in which a conflict might be resolved, emphasizing the effects of each type of resolution on the positions and desires of the two parties involved.

G. (For Obj. G) The high level of emotionality in a mob:

1. Lasts indefinitely if the mob has a clear sense of purpose.

*2. Cannot be sustained because of the stress engendered in individual members of the group.

3. Intensifies indefinitely over time.

4. Has little effect on the individual members of the group.

SOCIAL - IDENTITY

Module 7-B

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLES

A. The critical stage in adolescent identity formation (as defined by Erikson, identity integration vs. role diffusion) involves an accentuated importance of one's meaning to others. Hence inclusion and exclusion with regard to groups is of critical importance at this stage. (McKeachie and Doyle, p. 557; Wertheimer, et al, 1971, pp. 131-138)

B. Individuals evaluate their own abilities, skills, accomplishments, values, and beliefs by comparing them with those of others who are important to them. This process of social comparision becomes accentuated when objective indices are not available and creates tendencies to reduce or remove discrepancies. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 324-330; Krech, et al, pp. 560-561, 813-823)

II. KEY TERMS

In-group

Out-group

Reference group

Role

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to illustrate how adolescent group relationships can facilitate the severing of dependent ties with the home and the develment of autonomy. (Kalish, pp. 186-190)

B. The student will be able to explain how the extent of identity confusion in an adolescent may serve to determine the strength of attraction he feels toward a distinctively-visible group. (Kalish, pp. 186-190; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 557; Wertheimer, et al, 1971, pp. 131-138)

C. The student will be able to state a link between perceived threat to the individual from outside forces and the likelihood of the individual affiliating with a highly cohesive group. (Kalish, pp. 186-190; McKeachie and Doyle, p. 557; Wertheimer, et al, 1971, pp. 131-138)

D. The student will be able to explain why, when an individual joins a group which is important to him, his perception of the similarities between himself and the rest of the group and of the differences between his group and other groups are likely to become magnified. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 517-518)

E. The student will be able to give examples of how the groups one belongs to (or aspires to membership in) exert a vital influence on one's identity by setting standards which one tries to filfill and against which one judges one's behavior. (Kalish, pp. 327-345)

F. The student should be able to give examples of how one's sense of self is to an important degree a product of social interaction, i.e., how one begins to react to and to perceive himself as he sees others reacting to and perceiving him.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. The teacher might approach the objectives of this module by asking the students to name groups in which they value membership, whether they are currently members of the groups or only aspire to membership. With regard to each group, inquiry could center about values of the group, pressures on members to conform to those values, closeness or degree of cohesion of the group, and group feelings toward nongroup members, especially when the latter are members of contrasting or competing groups. The students may need to be reminded of the wide range of groups with which we all interact, groups pertaining to the family, to work, play, politics, religion, education; and that groups may be small or large.

Discussion can then build on the examples to examine how simultaneous membership in two or more groups can cause conflict in an individual (e.g., member on staff of school newspaper and on staff of local "underground" newspaper; member of conservationist group and of an informal snowmobile group). How can group membership support one in a conflict? Could it help one to resolve a conflict? Take up these last two questions in the light of typical differences between adolescents (and adolescent groups) and their parents (and adult groups).

Finally, the question might be posed as to how pervasive is the influence of group affiliations (through membership or aspiration) on the individual's view of himself. Could he see himself as honest, liberal, loyal, fair, aggressive, attentive, etc. without these qualities being a reflection of how he feels he is regarded by groups with which he is affiliated? Does such group influence apply even to a person's perception of his abilities, such as intelligence, musical or athletic prowess, etc.? To one's perception of his own physical characteristics?

B. (For Objs. C, E, and F) Either in the course of the previous discussion or following it, the teacher might take up the matter of social role and how group membership influences the individual's role both explicitly (son-in-law; junior partner; recording secretary) and implicitly (idea man; pacifier of hurt feelings; hanger-on; joker). Are such roles likely to express, even more specifically than the simple fact of group membership, aspects of one's identity? Ask the students to name, with reference to the groups they have discussed, roles which young people commonly assume or have assigned to them. Then ask the students to role-play some of these roles where the group can be appropriately simulated in class. What are the implicit protections likely to be found in group affiliation? What needs might be frustrated or met in the roles assigned? Given different needs and conflicts in individuals, what kind of group would each be likely to seek affiliation with: a loose-knit, open group or a highly cohesive, closed group? One which requires lots of preparatory work for admission or one which can be immediately entered? One which is distinctive and highly visible or one which is not much in the public eye? Reform-oriented or conservative? Small or large? Offering opportunities for advancement to a leadership position or the comfort of easy followership?

C. (For Objs. D and F) Separately or in connection with the above activity, the students might employ the masking tape game suggested as an activity in Module 2-B.

D. (For Objs. E and F)* Give the students a problem to work individually. It should be a problem which will produce a wide variation in class scores, with no one able to obtain a perfect score. Tests of creativity would be good for this purpose. Several are referred to in Hilgard, et al, p. 371 and in Module 4-D, or the teacher might make up a short test based on some items taken from these.** It is obviously advantageous to restrict the test to items which the students can correct themselves. The class should then be divided into a low-scoring and a high-scoring half. The teacher should note the scores, find a mid-point, then present a slip of paper to each student presumably informing him of various group norms which he has equalled or exceeded ("You have done as well or better than 50 per cent of a group of ______________ who took this same test."). These fictitious norms should relate to groups likely to differ in the prestige students will attach to their performance on the test, e.g., theoretical physicists, inventors, trial lawyers vs. junior high school students, office clerks, hospital attendants. Warning the students that if they compare norm slips or test results they will destroy the value of the activity, the teacher should distribute the norm slips to the students. The high-scoring half of the students should get low-prestige group norms; the low-scoring half, the high-prestige group norms.*** Each student is asked immediately to respond yes or no at the top of his test sheet to the following questions: (1) Does your score on this test represent your true ability on this type of problem? (2) Was this an easy test for you? (3) Would you expect to do better if given an equally difficult version of the same test?

The teacher could then prepare a simple chart for the class, with high scorers in one column and low scorers in the other, and the numbers of "no" and "yes" responses noted separately for each question in each column. Presumably, from the high scorers, the answers should tend to be (1) no, (2) no, (3) yes, respectively, despite the fact that they did better than the other half of the class (and, correspondingly, opposite answers from those who did more poorly). The finding generally should be that those who compare themselves with lower-prestige groups whose performance is said to be equal or better will evaluate their performance as poor and express high expectancies, while those compared with higher-prestige groups will consider their performance relatively good but will expect to do the same or worse if given the test again. This may not work out for the third question if the high-scorers become discouraged in the light of their comparison groups. Discuss the responses to each question. Discuss what the students were feeling when responding to each question and the effects of the comparison groups on their feelings and responses. This should provide a basis for discussing the importance of social comparisons in self-evaluation and the comparative function of reference groups.

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*In considering the use of this exercise, the teacher should refer to the final three paragraphs on the section titled, "Purposes and Limitations of the Psychology Elective," on pp. viii and ix of the Introduction to the course of study.

**The teacher would then be in a position to point out, at the conclusion of the activity, that this was not a legitimate test of creativity, but simply a composite of items without balance, reliability, validity, etc. This should help to put at ease any students who may be concerned about low scores.

***If seeking a more differentiated analysis, the teacher might hand the high-prestige norms to half of the low-scoring group and to half of the high-scoring group, and the low-prestige norms to the other halves of each group.

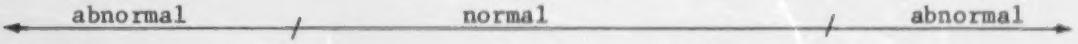
E. (For Objs. B and C) A good discussion may be stimulated through a classroom debate of the following provocative proposition: "The much talked of need for self-expression and individuality in adolescence is actually in opposition to adolescent behavior because the behavior shows such a strong need for conformity to the peer group."

F. (For Obj. F) Another provocative proposition for debate might be: "There is no such thing as autonomy, only attachment to one group or another." (A book to consider as background for this discussion is B. F. Skinner's Beyond Freedom and Dignity.)

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

The student will understand that the need for conformity with respect to identity formation exists on a continuum.



Need for nonconformance predominates over other needs

Need for conformance predominates over other needs.

B. Activities

1. Ask the students to discuss the following persons and literary characters in terms of their location on this continuum. Examples of a high need for nonconformance are: Leopold and Loeb, Isadora Duncan, Vincent Van Gogh (or in general, the artists' lifestyle), and Nick Adams (In Our Time by Ernest Hemingway). Examples of a high need for conformance are: Willie Loman (Death of a Salesman by Arthur Miller) and George Babbitt (Babbitt by Sinclair Lewis).

2. Ask the students to discuss the following questions:

   a) How far does an individual have to be along either extreme of this continuum in order to be considered abnormal?

   b) What behaviors need to be present, in relation to either of these needs, before we can say that that need predominates over other needs in a maladaptive way?

Reference may need to be made here to Hilgard's three criteria of abnormal behavior (Hilgard, et al, pp. 466-467) and to Module 7-A, Section V, Activity 1.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. C)

1. True or False

   Individuals who feel threatened by outside forces tend to affiliate with highly cohesive groups.

2. Alternative question for students who are skilled at explication:

   Write an essay explaining why an individual might be likely to affiliate with a highly cohesive group when threatened by outside forces. Explain your answer in terms of needs that might be met by joining such a group. (To the teacher: Examples of such needs might be: The need for security, constancy, and/or self-esteem as a result of acceptance by the group; the need to escape from loneliness and/or persecution.)

SOCIAL - PREJUDICE

Module 7-C

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

A. The individual's behavior is predominantly determined by his perception of reality rather than by reality itself.

B. Our perceptions of reality can be influenced by the perceptions of others.

C. Our perception of reality can influence and alter social reality. (Engle and Snellgrove, pp. 502-505; Hilgard, et al, pp. 515-523)

II. KEY TERMS

Aggregate

Crowd

Expectation

Group

Perception

Reality, Physical

Reality, Social

Self-fulfilling Prophecy

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. Given a complex social interaction, the student will be able to relate his interpretation of the situation to group influences upon him. (Wertheimer, et al, 1971, pp. 136-144)

B. The student will be able to give examples from his own experiences of how expectation can affect social reality and how social reality in turn reinforces expectation. (Kalish, pp. 81-83)

C. The student will be able to distinguish the degree of influence on an individual member of a group, aggregate, or mob, with regard to:

1. Duration of influence
2. Strength of impact

D. The student will be able to give an example of self-fulfilling prophecy. (Kalish, p. 82)

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. A and B) Ask the student to list the groups to which he belongs.

1. Formal groups: He will probably name these first.
2. Informal groups: He may be hesitant to acknowledge these groups.

Ask the student if these groups influence his attitudes, perhaps in a prejudicial way.

B. (For Objs. A, B, and C) Illustrate the influence of the group upon the individual's behavior.

1. Call for instances in public life where an individual has done something in a group which he would not have done on his own. (McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 581-583) Consider whether any of these instances relate to prejudice.

2. Ask students to recall examples of such behavior from their own experiences in pre-teen groups. Now ask the students to relate this to their present groups. In any of these instances with their own group, did the group serve to make them take hostile and aggressive action which they would not have taken as an individual? Can the student relate any of these instances to prejudice?

3. In reference to the above activities, discuss with the students whether knowing the types of groups to which a person belongs helps us conjecture about his personality.

4. Choose newspaper clippings to illustrate radically changed treatment of, and attitudes toward wartime enemies only a few years after the war's end (e.g., Germans, Japanese during and after World War II). How did group influences contribute to the attitudes toward, and treatment of these enemies, both during and after the war?

5. Illustrate, via rapid shifts in social attitudes, the strength of group influence regarding sex role, appropriate dress or grooming, e.g., not long ago it was nearly impossible for a boy to wear his hair long. Picture what he would have had to endure. Could he have resisted the influence of the group's attitude toward his apparent deviancy? Whatever he did, would he not have been reacting (or over-reacting) to that influence? And why would he have been wearing his hair long, anyway? Consider that, not long ago, there were problems for a girl wearing slacks, levis, or shorts to school. Perhaps move from this to a discussion of the impact of the group's attitude toward the short, slender male; toward the pretty, well-built girl. How strong is the impact of these group attitudes and how changeable are they?

6. Ask the students to discuss instances which illustrate the effects of social influences on individual behavior. Examples might be: the behavior of the mob in The Ox Bow Incident (Walter Van Tilburg Clark) and in Lord of the Flies (William Golding), that of the crowd at Woodstock, the members of a Marine Corps Boot Camp, the esprit de corps of a football team, etc.

D. (For Obj. D) As an illustration of "self-fulfilling prophecy," ask the students to consider the case of the capable student who fails because he is convinced by others that he is inadequate. The students may also be made aware of exceptions to this process, such as Albert Einstein, who after receiving negative appraisal from secondary school mathematics teachers, nonetheless went on to become a leader in his field.

E. (For Obj. D) As another illustration of "self-fulfilling prophecy," have the students discuss the statement by Eldridge Cleaver, "If you're not part of the solution, you're part of the problem." Specifically, this is a criticism of those who refuse to act to help solve a difficult social problem simply because the prospects are slim that the problem will be immediately resolved. Cleaver's intent is to point out that such inaction may serve to perpetuate the problem. By anticipating failure and thus not taking action, one ensures failure.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Instructional Objective

In relation to the instructional objectives of this module, the student will be able to illustrate how the influence of a particular kind of group may vary due to the individual's susceptibility.

B. Activities

1. A good illustration of the range of responses of an audience may be found in the reactions to the hardship or death of a highly popular character in a TV or radio serial. These can be shown to vary from disappointment, to strong protests delivered to the station or network, to the sending of gifts, letters of mourning, etc., as though the characters and their troubles actually existed.

2. Another continuum, closer to the student, could be found in the range of responses of the spectators at an exciting football game.

(See Section V of Module 7-A for Objectives and Activities similarly oriented to the individual's susceptibility to group influence.)

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) Jim Taylor is the 18-year-old son of a civil rights attorney in a suburb of New York City. Jim has voluntarily attended a military academy for four years and will be in R.O.T.C. when he starts college in the fall. The Taylor family can trace its ancestry back to the American Revolution and they have traditionally been strong supporters of the Democratic Party. Jim is going to vote for the first time in the next Presidential election, for one of the following candidates:

1. Stassanopolis - the Democratic candidate. He is the grandson of Greek immigrants who eventually settled on Long Island. He advocates a reduction in the defense budget so that more money can be spent on domestic problems, especially in metropolitan areas. He is 52 years old and has served as a congressman and a Presidential advisor on domestic affairs.

2. Gregory - the Republican candidate. He is from a prominent family who were among the first settlers of Minneapolis. Gregory feels that defense spending must remain high on our list of national priorities, and he favors reducing federal aid to schools which are desegregated by "artificial" means. At 37, he is one of the youngest members of the Senate, and, if elected will be the youngest President in U.S. history.

Which candidate will Jim be more likely to vote for? Defend your answer in terms of the various group influences affecting Jim's decision.

B. (For Obj. B) Choose one of the following statements and discuss how the expectations involved might affect the social reality of the situation and how the social reality, in turn, might affect the expectations.

1. It is popularly supposed that fat people are jolly people.

2. Many adults feel that teenagers are immature troublemakers.

3. Some people feel that women should not be hired for supervisory jobs because they are unable to function effectively in that role.

C. (For Obj. C)

Consider the words: group, aggregate, and mob.

Fill in the one word best described in each of the following statements:

1. ____(group)____ This collection of persons may vary greatly in their degree of interaction and in their purposes for coming together. They may possibly remain together for long periods, although this is not always the case. Its influence on its individual members varies according to its purposes and goals.

2. ___(aggregate)___ This collection of persons has little social interaction and has the least amount of influence on its individual members.

3. _____(mob)_____ This collection of persons may have a very strong influence over its members, although this influence usually does not last for long periods of time.

D. (For Obj. D) Jerry is taking a course in high school mathematics. He is told by his teacher that he has no aptitude for conceptualizing the scientific process. At the end of the semester, he receives an F. Is this an example of self-fulfilling prophecy? Why or why not?

NOTE TO TEACHER: On the basis of the information given in the question, one cannot know for sure whether or not this is a case of self-fulfilling prophecy. A vital piece of information is missing - Jerry's actual ability. It may be the case that his ability is high, in which case we would conclude that this is an example of self-fulfilling prophecy (i.e., that the teacher's negative feedback was the cause of Jerry's failure). On the other hand, Jerry may, in fact, have limited capability in this area. Hence, his failure may have been due to lack of ability, independent of criticism received from his teacher.

E. (Normal - Abnormal) Tonight is the last American concert of the Rotating Rocks, the most famous English rock group. The tickets have been sold out for months, but fans are surrounding the Coliseum hoping to get in, even without tickets. Police form a thin line between the clamoring fans and the admission gates. Choose the four (4) members of the group listed below who you feel would be most likely to go along with that decision. Explain your choices in terms of the factors which might affect the individual's susceptibility to group influences.

1. A boy who wants very much to see the Rocks. He has been in line for 32 hours and has gotten acquainted with some of the people in line with him.

2. A girl who was recently stopped for speeding by a policeman, although she was convinced she was not exceeding the speed limit.

3. A girl from a very poor family who feels that the Rocks deliberately charge high prices to keep poor people away from their concerts.

4. A boy who recently had a terrible fight with his girl friend which has left him feeling lonely and unhappy.

5. A girl who has written dozens of fan letters to the Rocks and has pictures of them all around her bedroom.

6. A boy who feels that the policemen are in a hostile mood and will attack the crowd soon.

7. A boy whose girl friend urges him to join in on the storming of the gates.

8. A girl who feels that the Rocks are a sexist rock group and that she must get inside to register protest.

SOCIAL - CONTROL

Module 7-D

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLES

A. Delay of gratification (impulse control) is basic to civilized life. The influence of the group on the individual's control over self will differ at different stages of his development. (Hilgard, et al, pp. 413-414, 515-523; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 545-590)

B. The influence and control of groups on each of us is pervasive and profound.

II. KEY TERMS

Delay of Gratification

Internalization

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be able to explain how self-discipline develops as a result of the internalization of parental controls on impulsive behavior. (Kalish, pp. 168-174)

B. The student will be able to explain how the questioning of parental teachings during adolescence is related to a yielding to and acceptance of the pressures exerted by the peer group which is a part of the separation process involved in the adolescent search for identity. (Krech, et al, pp. 751-752; McKeachie and Doyle, pp. 485-496)

C. The student will describe how social expectations play an important part in enabling the individual to delay gratification. That is, it is easier to curb impulses in situations where society has clearly indicated the need to do so, or where the groups one is affiliated with have clearly indicated the need to do so. (Kalish, p. 338)

D. The student will be able to discuss why such groups as Alcoholics Anonymous, Weight Watchers, Synanon, etc. are effective.

NOTE TO TEACHER: They may be effective because (1) they provide group reinforcement for certain patterns of delay, and (2) the individual feels responsibility for not letting the group down.

E. The student will illustrate how most of the group controls on the individual are indirect and subtle, as in the parental influence on sex-role behaviors, language development, achievement motivation, and self-esteem. (Kalish, pp. 173-174; Wertheimer, et al, 1971, p. 138)

F. The student will consider how to reconcile the idea of self-determination of behavior with that of the shaping process effected by society through selective reinforcement.

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. (For Objs. B and C) Have the students discuss the following examples of delay of gratification, which range from relatively simple to complex. What are the likely parental and group influences, explicit and implicit on each?

1. Waiting one's turn to speak in a conversation so that one may be assured of a more attentive audience.
2. Foregoing an afternoon snack so that one may more fully enjoy the evening meal.
3. Saving one's money for a stereo or other large purchase rather than spending it for day-to-day indulgences.
4. Studying several years to achieve one's primary career choice rather than studying for a shorter period which leads to a choice yielding less ultimate satisfaction.

B. (For Objs. D and F) Ask the students to explain the implications of the statement, "Education is primarily a branch of behavioral technology." (See Module 2-E, Motivation - Man and Technology.)

C. (For Obj. E) Ask the students to give examples of ways in which control can be exercised over an individual by appealing to his idealized image (such as, Pepsi generation, Marlboro man, Beatles (long hair), Saks Fifth Avenue, and John F. Kennedy (no need for hat or coat).

D. (For Objs. E and F) Have the students discuss Aldous Huxley's Brave New World and/or B. F. Skinner's Walden II in terms of the ways in which the behavior of characters in these novels is influenced by outside groups. What mechanisms are employed to achieve such control? To what extent are these mechanisms subtle as opposed to obvious? In what ways do these resemble and/or differ from those which operate in today's society, particularly in terms of the degree to which control is intentional?

E. (For Obj. A) Either in conjunction with Activity D or as a separate activity, have the students consider these two novels in terms of the development of self-discipline in children as a result of internalization of parental controls on impulsive behavior - also in terms of the control exercised by outside groups. How do the child rearing practices portrayed in these novels differ from those of our society today? Students who have had recent practical experience with youngsters as Child Development interns, student aides in Kindergarten classes, etc. should be asked to comment on current practices, examples of the need for delay of gratification in children, provisions made to help children in this regard when they get into fights over toys, refuse to wait their turn, demand to be taken home immediately, etc.

F. (For Obj. F) After the previous discussion, the students might consider these questions: Can man ever be "free"? What do we mean when we use the term "free"? Should man ever be "free"? For background reading on this topic, the teacher might want to assign selections from B. F. Skinner's Beyond Freedom and Dignity.

G. (All Objs.) Have the students name some groups which exercise control either directly and/or indirectly. Examples:

    Law enforcement agencies
    Family
    School
    Government
    Welfare agencies
    Church
    Mass media

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

A. Delay of Gratification

normal   abnormal

1. Instructional Objective

The student will understand that occasional failures in the ability to delay gratification are common to us all. Extreme examples are found among those whose inability to control their impulses leads them into difficulties on the job, in personal relationships, and with society as a whole.

2. Activity

The teacher might wish to have the students reconsider the previous activities in this module from the standpoint of abnormal behavior.

B. Need for Group Support

normal   abnormal

1. Instructional Objective

The student will understand that during times of personal crisis it is common that individuals will seek out particular groups for support and reassurance. Examples of this are: death of a loved one, being falsely accused of a crime, loss of a job, a champion who loses his title, loss of important personal property, etc. When the need for such support continues and the individual is unable to function in its absence, the need may be considered abnormal. The support required to face the original problem has itself become a problem. Example: the invalid who, even after the period of true illness, remains dependent upon the support he received earlier.

2. Activity

Ask the students to discuss the sustained dependence of an individual on a group such as A. A., where, through such support, he has become outwardly independent and has perhaps taken a job, as to whether or not his continued need of the group should be considered abnormal.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Obj. A) A three-year-old-girl has been taught by her parents not to bring food into the living room. One day, her mother, hearing a commotion, walks into the living room and sees the child bending over a glass of milk she has spilled on the carpet. The child is slapping her own wrist and is saying, "Naughty, naughty. Not s'posed to do that!" Explain what is happening here in terms of the process of internalization of values.

B. (For Obj. B) At what stage of an individual's development are parent-inculcated values frequently called into question and rejected in favor of another set of values? Where does this second set of values come from? Is this desirable? Why or why not?

C. (For Obj. D) Why is it easier for an overweight person to lose weight if he belongs to Weight Watchers than it is for him to do so by himself?

D. (For Obj. E) How is it that an individual acquires values, preferences, etc. from those around him without being specifically instructed that he should act or feel a certain way?

E. (For Obj. F) Think of a recent situation in which you were forced to make a decision. (Examples: what shirt to wear, whose offer to take you to a dance to accept, whether you should break your parents' curfew, etc.) Was this decision primarily the result of:

1. The influence of others

2. Your own judgment independent of the influence of others

3. A combination of 1 and 2.

Defend your answer, discussing the issue of whether or not, in the light of group influences, there is such a thing as free will.

SOCIAL - MAN AND TECHNOLOGY

Module 7-E

I. CENTRAL PRINCIPLE

Modern technology has resulted in a vast increase in the amount of interaction between the individual and groups of all kinds.

II. KEY TERMS (None in this module)

III. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Increasing individual-group interaction may have opposing effects on various aspects of the individual's behavior. The student will be able to cite examples of the following: (Hilgard, et al, pp. 539-544, Wertheimer (ed.), 1970, pp. 310-346)

A. Individual's sense of responsibility

  1. Decreased: just a cog in the machine
  2. Increased: broadened awareness through education, communication, travel etc., and hence greater guilt and/or responsibility

B. Individual's feeling of power

  1. Decreased: cog in the machine, plus broadened and more sophisticated view of power which make the individual appear or feel powerless
  2. Increased: through use of the products of technology, from the power of the pen or voice in modern media to the steam shovel and the atom bomb

C. Individual's certainty of moral (and social, aesthetic, etc.) judgment

  1. Decreased: greater awareness, cultural pluralism, longer life span
  2. Increased: within one's own reference group(s)

D. Individual's sense of and definition of privacy

  1. Decreased: by the sheer amount of interaction; by the needs of institutions, government and other; by modern techniques of surveillance
  2. Increased: through the anonymity and irresponsibility possible in being only one among so many

E. The individual's relation to and definition of leisure

  1. Decreased: as leisure becomes more standardized and more of a compulsion in an economy which requires great use of "leisure" products and services, and media which promote their use in overt and subtle ways

2. Increased: technology and the shorter work week

F. The individual's ability to experience things directly

1. Decreased: modern media presenting so much vicarious experience; passivity in spectorship

2, Increased: through increased travel, mobility, communication

IV. ACTIVITIES

A. Ask the students to relate from their own experiences examples of the above paradoxes.

B. Select passages from Future Shock by Alvin Toffler which emphasize the deindividualization of man. (A movie of the same title as based on the book, is available through the MCPS film library.)

C. Discuss the writings of Marshall McLuhan, The Medium is the Massage, relating to the onslaught of technology upon man.

V. THE NORMAL - ABNORMAL CONTINUUM

Each of the contrasting aspects cited in the Instructional Objectives section may be carried to extremes which might be considered abnormal. The teacher may wish to reconsider those paradoxes and utilize the activities related to each from the standpoint of extreme and therefore abnormal reactors, e.g., feelings of helplessness in the face of technical complexity, compulsive TV watching, etc.

VI. EVALUATION EXERCISES

A. (For Objs. A, B, and C) During the late 1960's the war in Vietnam was a source of disagreement and despair in the United States. As modern technology and the amount of interaction between the individual and various groups increased, many people came to have storong feelings about our military involvement. Describe two hypothetical individuals with opposing viewpoints on the war in Vietnam. For each, explain how modern technology may have affected his sense of responsibility, his feelings of power, and his certainty of moral judgment.

B. (For Objs. D, E, and F) "Never before in our history have people had so much leisure time and so much freedom to do whatever they please with it."

Agree or disagree with the above statement. Explain your decision in terms of the effects of technology on leisure time, privacy, and the possibilities for new experiences.

GLOSSARY

GLOSSARY

ADAPTABILITY (ADAPTIVE BEHAVIOR)
Behavior that brings the organism into adjustment with its variable environment. (Hilgard)

AGGREGATE
The least significant form of a group in which there is little social interaction.

AGGRESSION
Hostile or angry activity in which there is attack on other persons: physical injury, destruction or taking of their property, or ridicule. (Engle)

AMBIGUITY
The arousal of mutually exclusive concepts by a stimulus pattern. (McKeachie)

AMBIGUITY (TOLERANCE FOR)
The ability to accept the ambiguous situation without undue anxiety.

APPROACH - APPROACH CONFLICT
A conflict in which two positive goals are available, but the selection of one goal eliminates the possibility of selecting the other.

APPROACH - AVOIDANCE CONFLICT
A conflict in which the same goal has both positive and negative features, so that it attracts and repels simultaneously.

APTITUDE
Potential capacity to learn, inferred from present level of performance. (Sanford and Wrightsman)

ATTENTION
The focusing of perception involving a heightened awareness of a limited part of the perceptual field. (Krech)

ATTITUDE
An organized, enduring, learned readiness to behave in a consistent way toward a given object or situation or class of objects or situation. (Sanford and Wrightsman)

An orientation toward or away from some object, concept, or situation: a readiness to respond in a predetermined manner to the object, concept, or situation. (Hilgard)

AVOIDANCE - AVOIDANCE CONFLICT
A conflict in which both alternative goals are repelling, and the individual has to select one or the other. (Kalish)

BIOFEEDBACK

The reception of information by an individual about ongoing changes in his own body, through sensitive electronic instruments that sense these changes and display them to the subject in the form of some easily observable stimulus. (*Psychology '73-'74*, Dushkin Publishing Group)

CLOSURE

The tendency for certain figures to be so perceived that they seem complete or closed rather than incomplete or unclosed. For example, a circle with a tiny gap may be seen as a complete unbroken circle. (Krech)

COGNITION

Awareness, including perceiving, remembering, reasoning, and other means of knowing about oneself and one's environment.

COGNITIVE DISSONANCE

The condition in which one has beliefs or knowledge that disagree with each other or with behavioral tendencies; when such cognitive dissonance arises, the subject is motivated to reduce the dissonance through changes in behavior or cognition. (Hilgard)

COGNITIVE STYLE

A way of perception and reasoning about one's self and one's environment that is relatively constant and has generality.

COMMITMENT

The act of pledging oneself to a position on an issue or question.

CONDITIONING, CLASSICAL

A form of learning in which two stimuli are presented close together in time on numerous occasions until the response caused by one stimulus is also elicited by the second stimulus, although the latter originally did not produce this response. (Kalish)

CONDITIONING, OPERANT

The strengthening of a given response by immediately presenting a reinforcing stimulus if (and only if) the response occurs. (Hilgard)

CONFLICT

Controversy, disagreement, or opposition between two or more persons or groups of persons.

The state of being simultaneously motivated by incompatible or mutually exclusive tendencies. (Sanford)

CONTROL

The exercise of directing, guiding, or restraining power. (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary)

CONTROL, EXTERNAL

Consideration of primarily social and environmental factors as they affect the whole personality.

CONTROL, INTERNAL

Consideration of various aspects of the personality as they relate to the whole personality.

CONVERGENT THINKING

Thinking which results in the single, correct solution to a problem. (McKeachie)

CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING (PRODUCTIVE THINKING)

Achieving a solution to a problem that is new and original to the individual. Previously acquired knowledge enters into the process but must be transformed to fit the novel demands of the problem. (Krech)

CROWD

A temporary group of people interacting with each other and having some common focus of attention; an active crowd may be referred to as a mob; a passive crowd as an audience.

CUE

A stimulus which triggers off activity associated with a concept. (McKeachie)

DEFENSE MECHANISM

An adjustment made, often unconsciously, either through action or the avoidance of action in order to escape recognition by oneself of personal qualities or motives that might lower self-esteem or heighten anxiety. (Hilgard)

DELAY OF GRATIFICATION

Postponement of immediate satisfaction in favor of an anticipated greater satisfaction at a later time.

DELUSIONS

False beliefs characteristic of some forms of psychotic disorder. They often take the form of delusions of grandeur or delusions of persecution. (Hilgard)

DEVELOPMENT

In individual ontogeny, the process of natural evolution and growth as a function of genetic and environmental factors.

DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

Primarily concerned with behavior changes at various stages of development. (Kalish)

DEVELOPMENT (STAGES OF)

Developmental periods, usually following a progressive sequence that on an observable level represent qualitative changes in either structure or function. (Krech)

DIFFERENTIATION

The process of psychological development in which the child is able to make more specific, less diffuse, responses to a stimulus. (Sanford)

DISCRIMINATION

In perception, the detection of differences between two stimuli. In conditioning, the differential response to the positive (reinforced) stimulus and to the negative (nonreinforced) stimulus. (Hilgard)

DISPLACEMENT

A straightforward substitution of a less threatening goal for the original.

The substitution of one object for another as a source of gratification. (Hilgard)

DIVERGENT THINKING

Thinking, frequently of an associational nature, that results in a variety of possible ideas. (McKeachie)

DRIVE

An aroused condition of the organism based upon deprivation or noxious stimulation, including tissue needs, drug or hormonal conditions and specified internal or external stimuli as in pain. (Hilgard)

EGOCENTRIC

Centering in the ego or self. Viewed from one's own mind as a center. (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary)

EMPATHY

Inner Mimicry; the ability to understand another person's attitudes, especially those that are emotionally toned. (Engle)

ETHOLOGY

A relatively recent sub-specialization among a group of zoologists and naturalists particularly interested in simple behavior patterns which are direct reactions to environmental stimuli and specific to a species.

EXPECTATION

An anticipation or prediction of future events based on past experience and present stimuli. (Hilgard)

FEEDBACK

Returned information concerning the consequences of an act or event (Sanford)

FIXATION

In psychoanalysis, arrested development through failure to pass beyond one of the earlier stages or to change the objects of attachment. (e.g., fixated at the oral stage, or fixated upon the mother.) (Hilgard)

GENERALIZATION

(1) In concept formation, problem-solving, and transfer of learning, the detection by the learner of a characteristic or principle common to a class of objects, events, or problems.

(2) In conditioning, the principle that once a conditioned response has been established by a given stimulus, similar stimuli will also evoke that response. (Hilgard)

GROUP
A collection of persons which can range in degree of interaction from none to extreme.

HALLUCINATION
A sense experience in the absence of appropriate external stimuli; a misinterpretation of imaginary experiences as actual perceptions. (Hilgard)

IDENTIFICATION
A process whereby an individual takes on the behavior of another individual, who is of significance for him, and behaves as if he were that individual. (Sanford)

IDENTITY DIFFUSION
Prior to the successful achievement of an adult identity, there is a period or stage during which the individual experiences role diffusion. (Erikson)

A set of disconnected part-identities. (Krech)

IDENTITY FORMATION
The process of achieving adult personality integration as an outgrowth of earlier identifications and other influences. (Hilgard)

ILLUSION
In perception, a misinterpretation of the relationships among presented stimuli, so that what is perceived does not correspond to physical reality; especially, but not exclusively an optical or visual illusion. (Hilgard)

IN-GROUP
The group to which a person belongs and with which he identifies himself. (Hilgard)

INSTINCT
The name given to unlearned patterned, goal-directed behavior which is species-specific, as illustrated by nest building in birds or by the migration of salmon. (Hilgard)

An unlearned behavior pattern that appears in full form when there is an adequate stimulation. (Sanford)

INTERNAL STIMULI
Events occurring within the body which stimulate activity of receptors located within walls of organs and in joints and muscles.

INTERNALIZATION
The taking on of the values, attitudes, beliefs, ideas, wishes, and goals of another person as your own; the general cultural values are transmitted from parent to child in this fashion. (Kalish)

That process by which, standards originally derived from influences outside of a person becomes his own, that is, they form an enduring part of the person's self and are no longer dependent upon the application of external forces.

LEARNING

The process leading to relatively permanent changes in behavior that result from past experience (past response, practice). (Sanford)

MOB

Active crowd which is showing strong affect of a hostile and frequently aggressive nature.

MODEL

A mathematical, logical, or mechanical replica of a relationship or a system of events so designed that a study of the model can yield some understanding of the real thing; e.g., an electronic model of the brain. (Sanford)

MODELING

The process by which individuals serve as identification figures for the child to imitate. (Hilgard)

MOTIVATION

A general term referring to the regulation of need-satisfying and goal-seeking behavior. (Hilgard)

The process of getting behavior into action because of a need. (Kalish)

MOTIVATION (ABUNDANCY)

Motivation characterized by desires to experience enjoyment, to obtain gratification, to understand and discover, to seek novelty, to achieve and create. It includes the general aims of satisfaction and stimulation. In contrast to deficiency motivation, it may often involve seeking tension increase rather than tension reduction.

MOTIVATION (DEFICIENCY)

Characterized by needs to remove deficits and disruptions and to avoid or escape danger and threat. It includes the general aims of survival and security. Deficiency motivation is tension-reductive in its aim. (Krech)

MOTIVE

An inferred condition of the organism that serves to direct it toward a certain goal. (Sanford)

NEED

A physical state involving any lack or deficit within the organism. (Hilgard)

A lack of something in the organism which if present would increase the satisfaction of the organism. There are numerous ways of classifying needs, including systems by Abraham Maslow and Henry Murray. Satisfying the need may be necessary to maintain existence, to provide stimulation, or to increase satisfaction. (Kalish)

OUT-GROUP

Persons outside the in-group, especially if they belong to a group with which the in-group is in conflict. (Hilgard)

PATTERNED BEHAVIOR

A goal oriented sequence of behaviors which may involve innate and/or learned components.

PERCEPTION

The process through which the various sensations are interpreted and organized into meaningful patterns. (Kalish)

The process of becoming aware of objects, qualities, or relations by way of the sense organs. While sensory content is always present in perception, what is perceived is influenced by set and prior experience, so that perception is more than a passive registration of stimuli impinging on the sense organs. (Hilgard)

PERCEPTUAL CONSTANCY

The recognition of sameness in an object despite actual wide variations in the conditions of stimulation each time one perceives it is referred to as object constancy. Similar perceptual constancies exist with regard to shape, size, loudness, brightness, and other aspects of perception.

PERSONALITY

The individual characteristics and ways of behaving that in their organization or patterning account for an individual's unique adjustments to his total environment. (Hilgard)

PHOBIA (PHOBIC REACTION)

A form of neurosis in which the person develops a dread, morbid, and exaggerated fear of something. (Kalish)

PREDISPOSITION

Being already set (in terms of heredity or learning) to react in a certain way.

PREJUDICE

A prejudgment; an emotionally toned attitude or readiness to respond favorably or unfavorably to objects, people, or classes; most frequently it refers to negative prejudgment. (Sanford and Wrightsman)

An attitude that is firmly fixed not open to free and rational discussion and resistant to change. (Hilgard)

PREMATURE CLOSURE

Premature closure stresses the inadequacy of the stimuli or data used in arriving at closure, usually in comparison to the stimuli or data which are available to the individual but not used.

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

Instruction in which material is presented in a sequence of steps, or "frames," each ending with an item that the subject must answer correctly before proceding to the next.

PROJECTION

A defense mechanism by which a person protects himself from awareness of his own undesirable traits by attributing those traits excessively to others. (Hilgard)

REALITY (PHYSICAL)
Something that exists independently from ideas concerning it.

REALITY (SOCIAL)
The objective appraisal of physical reality as shaped by the attitudes and biases of a social group.

REFERENCE GROUP
Those people with whom the individual compares himself. (Kalish)

REGRESSION
A return to earlier and less mature forms of behavior - one of the reactions to frustration. (Sanford and Wrightsman)

REINFORCEMENT
(1) In classical conditioning, the experimental procedure of following the conditioned stimulus by the unconditioned stimulus.

(2) In operant conditioning, the analagous procedure of following the occurrence of the operant response by the reinforcing stimulus.

(3) The process that increases the strength of conditioning as a result of these arrangements. (Hilgard)

REINFORCEMENT, SECONDARY
The reinforcing effect of an originally neutral stimulus that has been paired with a primary reinforcement. (Sanford)

ROLE
The behavior expected of an individual who occupies a particular position in the social scheme; positions include age position, leadership position, vocational position, and innumerable others. (Kalish)

ROLE DIFFUSION
A stage of development said by Erikson to characterize many adolescents (and others) in which various identifications with others have not been harmonized and integrated. (Hilgard)

SCAPEGOATING
A form of displaced aggression in which an innocent or helpless victim is blamed or punished as the source of the scapegoater's frustration. (Hilgard)

SELF
All that constitutes an individual; the "real me." (Kalish)

SELF-CONCEPT
The idea an individual has of himself; what a person sees himself as. The similarity between self and self-concept varies from person to person. (Kalish)

SELF-FULFILLING PROPHECY
A statement about what will happen in the future that helps cause the predicted circumstance to occur, e.g., a student who expects to fail in a course may behave in such a fashion because of his expectation that he does fail. (Kalish)

SET

A readiness of the organism to make a particular response or class of responses. (Kresh)

Note to teacher: Set is usually defined as a temporary or short-lived phenomenon. This should be distinguished from more enduring phenomena such as interest, attitudes, and values.

SET, COGNITIVE

Readiness for particular thought processes. (Kresh)

SET, PERCEPTUAL

Readiness for particular organizations of stimuli. (Kresh)

SHAPING

Modifying operant behavior by reinforcing only those variations in response that deviate in the direction desired by the experimenter; the whole population or responses so reinforced thus drifts in the desired direction. (Hilgard)

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Behavior of people and of groups in a social environment, formation, and change of attitudes and beliefs, the effects of society upon behavior, and the actions of people in small groups. (Kalish)

STEREOTYPE

A biased generalization usually about a social or national group, according to which individuals are falsely assigned traits that they do not possess. (Hilgard)

THRESHOLD

The point at which a stimulus is just strong enough to cause a response. (Kalish)

THINKING

Judging, abstracting, reasoning, evaluating, recalling, imagining, anticipating, or performing a comparable intellectual task; does not include perceiving. (Kalish)

Processes that occur between the presentation of a stimulus and the emergence of an overt response and that involve an interplay of concepts, symbols, or mediating responses rather than a direct manipulation of environmental objects. (Sanford and Wrightsman)

TRAIT

A persisting characteristic or dimension of personality according to which individuals can be rated or measured. (Hilgard)

UNCONSCIOUS

The absence of an awareness of some desires, experiences, concepts, and information which, under ordinary circumstances, are not generally available on the conscious level. (Engle)

VALUE

A belief about what is good and bad. Each individual internalizes many values, which then may serve to motivate behavior. Values are often held without the individual's full awareness. (Kalish)

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Excellent book of readings for the more able student.

Cox, Frank. Psychology. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1970.
Readable, general text with a heavy emphasis on practical application of the material covered. Suitable for the average student.

CRM. Psychology Today: An Introduction. Del Mar, Calif.: Communications/Research/Machines, Inc., 1970.
Comprehensive in coverage and has many excellent illustrations. Consequently rather bulky for carrying about, but a good text for the more serious student. Perhaps best used as a teacher resource and as a supplementary classroom text.

---. Involvement in Psychology Today. Del Mar, Calif.: Communications/Research/Machines, Inc., 1970.
A student handbook whose chapters parallel those of its parent text. Its games, puzzles, illustrations, etc. help in understanding the text and provide exercise for use with the class as a whole.

Engle, T. L., and Snellgrove, Louise. *Psychology: Its Principles and Applications*, 5th ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1969.
One of the earliest high school psychology texts, about to come out in a sixth, 1974, edition. A readable mixture of psychological content and its everyday applications.

Erikson, Erik H. *Childhood and Society*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1963.
Perhaps the best known and one of the most readable books elucidating the contemporary emphasis on ego development in psychoanalytic theory. It adds up to a much more difficult conceptual level, however, than its deceptively easy reading level at first indicates. Emphasis on identity formation, with a sociological and anthropological viewpoint incorporated with the psychological view.

---. *Identity: Youth and Crisis*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1968.
Continues the theoretical outlook of *Childhood and Society* with further case histories and study of the life cycle and identity formation. Too advanced for most high school students.

Frankl, Victor. *Man's Search for Meaning*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1963.
Popular psychological writing with an existential philosophic outlook which is appealing and meaningful to some high school students. Used in the course of study for contrast with B. F. Skinner in the manner in which each assigns responsibility for an individual's control over his own behavior.

Freud, Sigmund. *A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis.* Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co., 1943.
A readable introduction to Freud's thinking via his lectures on slips of speech, dreams, neurotic symptoms, and what they indicate about the unconscious.

Golding, William. *Lord of the Flies*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. (paper)
A popular novel about the community set up by a group of boys isolated from the rest of society. Suggested in the course of study as illustrative of group influence on individual behavior.

Gordon, Sol. *Psychology for You*. New York: Oxford Book Co., 1972.
Excellent and very readable short text which makes no attempt at general coverage of psychology but limits itself to those topics most likely to capture the interest of all students. Highly recommended for motivating those students who need a simple and absorbing text to help them maintain their interest.

Guthrie, Robert V. (ed.). *Encounter, Issues of Human Concern*. Menlo Park, Calif.: Cummings Publishing Co., 1970.
Readings, average in level of reading difficulty, geared to topics students are likely to be interested in.

---. *Psychology in the World Today*, 2nd ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1971.
These readings give an excellent view of current uses and problems of the behavioral sciences today. They are selected for the college student, however, and are most likely to be useful to the above-average high school student seeking further information on a topic.

Hall, Calvin S., and Lindzey, Gardner. Theories of Personality, 2nd ed. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1970.
A straightforward presentation allotting a chapter to each of the thirteen theories presented and stressing the positive aspects of each theory. Heavy going for the average student, but the book provides an alternative between the scant coverage of these theories in the comprehensive textbook and the more complex writings of the originators of the theories.

Hansberry, Lorraine. A Raisin in the Sun. New York: New American Library, 1961. (paper)
An absorbing play about family life. Recommended in the course of study for portraying the different ways in which people attribute responsibility for their behavior.

Hemingway, Ernest. In Our Time. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930.
The character of Nick Adams in this book is recommended as one to consider in relation to conformity, noncomformity, and the search for identity.

Hilgard, Ernest R.; Atkinson, Richard C.; Atkinson, Rita L. Introduction to Psychology, 5th ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1971.
Perhaps the best of the college-level, general psychology texts recommended for teacher reference. Heavily used throughout the course of study, every MCPS teacher of high school psychology should have one. It can also be used as a supplementary text for able students.

Holt, John. How Children Fail. New York: Pitman, 1964.
Recommended for the same purpose as its companion volume.

---. How Children Learn. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1972. (paper)
A book about learning and educational institutions, recommended as a vehicle for applying and evaluating the factors considered in the course of study for their influence on learning.

Horner, M. S. "Woman's Will to Fail." Psychology Today. November 1969, p. 36.
An article which describes some interesting research showing a high incidence among female students of a motivation to fail or avoid academically and intellectually competitive pursuits. Summarized in the course of study.

Huxley, Aldous. Brave New World. New York: Harper, 1958.
One of the popular, easily-read novels recommended in the course of study to illustrate the possibilities for use and misuse of indirect and subtle social influences on the individual.

James, William. Memories and Studies. New York: Longmans, Green, 1911.
Recommended for the essay, "The Moral Equivalent of War," to be used in discussing the possibilities for channeling man's aggressiveness so as to produce less destructive social behavior.

Johnson, Margo (ed.). Periodically. February 25, 1972. Published by the American Psychological Association's Clearinghouse on Precollege Psychology and Behavioral Science.
This is a most valuable newsletter for the high school teacher of psychology. It includes information gathered throughout the country on texts and other resource materials, in-service programs, research grants, etc. Subscriptions to the newsletter are available free from the clearinghouse, at 1200 Seventeenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Joyce, James. Finnegan's Wake. New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1959. (paper)
Recommended to illustrate the difficulty which may exist in attempting to distinguish between creative and pathological use of language, and the need for context in which to apply criteria for making the distinction. Approved for professional use only.

---. Ulysses. Westminster, Maryland: Random House, Inc. n.d. (paper)
Recommended for the same purpose as the other Joyce book.

Kagan, Jerome; Haith, Marshall M.; Caldwell, Catherine (eds.). Psychology: Adapted Readings. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1971.
An excellent selection of readings, adapted so that they can be read and understood by the average student.

Kagan, Jerome, and Havemann, Ernest. Psychology: An Introduction, 2nd ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1972.
A well written general student text, the collaborative work of a psychologist and a journalist. Contains more substance than most of the other general student texts on this list, and thus is recommended for the more motivated student.

Kalish, Richard A. The Psychology of Human Behavior, 2nd ed. Belmont, Calif.: Brooks, Cole Publishing Co., 1970.
Currently the most popular of the comprehensive student texts in use in the MCPS, representing a readable blend of academic and applied psychology.

Kisker, George W. The Disorganized Personality, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.
Approved as a teacher reference text for want of a better abnormal psychology book to be used in connection with the course. It should be used selectively by the teacher and to supplement the approach to studying abnormal behavior illustrated in the course of study.

Krech, David; Crutchfield, Richard S.; Livson, Norman. Elements of Psychology. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1969.
One of the teacher reference texts recommended for all teachers of psychology. It is referred to frequently in the course of study.

Lee, Harper. To Kill a Mockingbird. New York: Popular Library, Inc., 1971. (paper)
Recommended as a popular novel which can be read for information on how individuals of different ages have different ways of viewing the world and think differently about what goes on about them.

Lennon, John. *A Spaniard in the Works*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1965. Recommended as illustrative of the difficulty which may exist in attempting to distinguish between creative and pathological use of language, and the need for context in which to apply criteria for making the distinction. Approved for professional use only.

---. *In His Own Write*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1965. Recommended for the same purpose as the other Lennon book. Approved for professional use only.

Levin, Meyer. *Compulsion*. New York: New American Library, 1968. (paper) Suggested in the course of study as illustrating characters whose high need for nonconformance places them at the pathological end of a continuum of social conformity.

Lewis, M. "There's no Unisex in the Nursery." *Psychology Today*, May 1972, pp. 54-57. Referred to in the course of study as a research finding indicative of how early and subtly social role expectations and social behavior influence sex role differentiation.

Lewis, Sinclair. *Babbitt*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1949. The main character in this novel is cited as illustrative of a high need for conformity in a consideration of normal and pathological conformance needs.

McCullers, Carson. *Member of the Wedding*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970. Cited as a popular novel which can be read for information on how individuals of different ages have different ways of viewing the world and thinking differently about what goes on about them.

McGinniss, Joe. *The Selling of the President*. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1972. Referenced for its analysis of motivational strategy in a political campaign, one of the contexts in which the general topic of brainwashing is considered.

McKeachie, Wilbert James, and Doyle, Charlotte Lackner. *Psychology*, 2nd ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1970. One of the college-level, teacher reference texts referred to frequently in the course of study and recommended for all MCPS teachers of psychology.

McKinney, Fred (ed.). *Psychology in Action: Basic Readings*. New York: Macmillan, 1967. The easiest of the books of readings in psychology cited in this bibliography, these readings may be too summary for the more ambitious student, but are fine for the student who does not read too easily or who lacks the motivation for more sustained reading.

McLuhan, Marshall. *The Medium is the Massage*. New York: Random House (Bantam Books), 1967. The reading of this book or other writings by McLuhan is suggested as an activity in connection with study of the onslaught of technology upon man.

Miller, Arthur. *Death of a Salesman*. New York: Viking Press, 1949. The character of Biff Loman is suggested for consideration in connection with the struggle to achieve identity, while the character of his father, Willie, is suggested as illustrative of a high psychological need for social conformance.

---. The Crucible. New York: Viking Press, 1964.
The behavior of the young women in this play is suggested for consideration in two related modules of the course of study: in the first, to stimulate thinking about how we assign responsibility for control over one's behavior differently in different situations; in the second, to help evoke the ideas of a continuum with regard to the individual's degree of susceptibility to group influence.

Minahan, Nancy M., and Costin, Frank. Experiments on a Shoestring. Urbana-Champaign, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1971. (Prepared as a project in teaching psychology at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, and available in mimeograph form, through the Department of Curriculum and Instruction for teachers of psychology in the MCPS.)
Contains many experiments, particularly in the areas of learning, perception, and thinking, simple enough to be properly performed in the classroom.

Munn, Norman L.; Fernald, L. Dodge, Jr.; Fernald, Peter S. Basic Psychology (an adaptation of Introduction to Psychology, 2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1969.
An abridged version of a standard, college-level, introductory psychology text.

Neill, A. S. Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing. New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1960.
A Summerhill classroom is suggested as one of several contrasting situations to be considered for their implications with regard to the general topic of brainwashing and the difficulty of defining it; and is contrasted with a traditional American classroom in a consideration of factors affecting the student's motivation to learn.

O'Neill, Eugene. Ah, Wilderness. New York: Modern Library, 1964.
The character of Richard Miller in this play is suggested as exemplifying the internal struggle to achieve an identity.

---. Long Day's Journey Into Night. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1956.
Consideration of the character of Edmund Tyrone in this almost clinical study of intrafamilial relationships is recommended for study of the struggle to achieve identity. The charged interaction among the family members is cited as providing students an opportunity to identify examples of suppression and repression.

Packard, Vance. Hidden Persuaders. New York: David McKay Co., 1957.
The reading of this book is suggested as a basis for student discussion of the influence of advertising and motivational research, in the general context of influences other than parental ones on the developing child.

Piersall, J., and Hirshberg, Al. Fear Strikes Out. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1955.
This book presents a nonfictional character from the world of sports, recommended for study in connection with the struggle to find an identity.

Pronko, N. N. Panorama of Psychology. Belmont, Calif.: Brooks, Cole Publishing Co., 1969.
This is essentially a book of readings, but organized so that it presents interesting possibilities for use as a text. The readings are adapted and abridged, sometimes summarized quite briefly; there are also some original articles solicited for the book by the author. These are interspersed with comments by the author in the attempt to achieve, along with balanced and reasonably full coverage of each of the topics chosen, an issues-oriented view of psychology. The book is perhaps best used as a text for selected students who are able and motivated to study somewhat independently in this nontraditional, but possibly very stimulating, format.

Psychology '73-'74. Guilford, Conn.: Dushkin Pub., 1973.
An excellent and unusual text, but substantial enough to be heavy going for the average student unless he is highly interested in psychology. Its excellence is in both its coverage and its readable and interesting format. It is unusual in that it attempts to deal with the great degree of specialization and diversity of content within psychology by organizing the book in terms of a "contents matrix." The matrix organizes the 35 units of the book into four levels of psychological analysis and four perspectives for study. The book is to be accompanied by an encyclopedia of psychology, developed to serve as a companion volume.

Rokeach, Milton. "Three Christs of Upsilanti," Encounter: Issues of Human Concern. Edited by R. V. Guthrie. Menlo Park, Calif.: Cummings Publishing Co., 1970.
Suggested as an interesting study illustrative of how severe pathology in the thinking processes seriously interferes with identity formation.

Salinger, J. D. Catcher in the Rye. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1945.
Holden Caulfield is another of the fictional characters suggested as illustrative of the struggle of young people to achieve an identity.

Sanford, Fillmore H., and Wrightsman, Lawrence J., Jr. Psychology: A Scientific Study of Man, 3rd ed. Belmont, Calif.: Brooks, Cole Publishing Co., 1970.
One of the teacher reference texts frequently cited in the course of study and perhaps second only to the Introduction to Psychology text (Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson) in its general excellence and helpfulness to the teacher.

---. Student Workbook for Psychology: A Scientific Study of Man, 3rd ed. Belmont, Calif.: Brooks, Cole Publishing Co., 1970.
An excellent student workbook, filled with provocative "arousal questions," text questions, and suggested activities. Useful to the teacher as well as the student.

Skinner, B. F. Beyond Freedom and Dignity. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc. Subs. of Random House, Inc., 1971.
Portions of this book provide a view of Skinner's more theoretical thinking about society and thus can be used for contrast with the writing of Victor Frankl with regard to the manner in which each writer assigns responsibility for an individual's control over his own behavior. Skinner's work is also suggested for stimulating student thinking about the use of social influences to control the individual's behavior.

---. Walden II. New York: Macmillan Co., 1948.
An easily read novel suggested in the course of study to provoke discussion of the possible uses and misuses of indirect and subtle social influences to control the individual's behavior.

Thighpen, Corbett, and Cleckley, Henry. Three Faces of Eve. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957.
A book-length study of a famous case of multiple personality, suggested to illustrate how severe pathology in the thinking processes interferes with identity formation.

Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock. New York: Random House, 1970.
The reading of this book (or portions of it) is suggested as an activity in considering the impact of technology upon man.

Twain, Mark. The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn. New York: New American Library, 1971.
Recommended as portraying a youthful as opposed to an adult way of viewing the world and everyday events.

---. The Adventures of Tom Sawyer. New York: New American Library, 1959.
Recommended as portraying a youthful as opposed to an adult way of viewing the world and everyday events.

Wertheimer, Michael (ed.). Confrontation: Psychology and the Problems of Today. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1970.
An excellent paperback book of readings, organized by topics like those of the topics of application used in the course of study.

Wertheimer, Michael; Bjorkman, Mats; Lundberg, Ingvar; Magnusson, David. Psychology: A Brief Introduction. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1971.
Of student texts which may be recommended for those students who are a little below average in ability or motivation, this text is possibly the best. It is appealing in format and compact, yet maintains good coverage and validity of content.

Wolf, Thomas. Look Homeward, Angel. New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1969.
Eugene Gant in this novel is one of the fictional characters suggested for study in relation to the struggle to achieve an identity.

Wouk, Herman. The Caine Mutiny. New York: Doubleday and Co., 1954.
In this novel, the loss of confidence in the ship's commander is suggested for study in relation to its impact on the motivations of the rest of the ship's men, in particular its impact on the need for explicit and fixed rules of conduct in warfare.